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SOCIAL STUDIES



A PERIODICAL
FOR TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS

VOLUME LII, NUMBER 5

OCTOBER, 1961

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The Social Studies

VOLUME LII, NUMBER 5

OCTOBER, 1961

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As the Editor Sees It

It has been truly said many times that the excellence of a school is measured by the excellence of its teachers. While other factors—curriculum, plant, equipment, parental attitude, and so on—naturally play a significant part, it is fundamentally the quality of the instruction which determines the degree of excellence of the school. Since this is so, it is easy to become deeply disturbed at the annual announcements in the press of the large number of "sub-standard" teachers who must be employed in our schools. Such statements can be a cause of worry to parents, who are likely to lose confidence in the professional competence of their children's teachers, and feel that they are being short-changed.

The term "sub-standard" is an unfortunate one. As used by state departments of education, it refers simply to teachers who have not fully complied with all the course requirements for a full teaching certificate. One would be gullible indeed to assume that a teacher must have a full certificate to be thoroughly competent; or that he is thoroughly competent if he has such a certificate. Probably every public school possesses one or more fully certified teachers whose overall ability, intelligence and influence are clearly inferior. They are "sub-standard" teachers in the public mind, but not by legal definition. On the other hand, most schools, both public and private, have on their staffs instructors who lack some requirement for certification, but are nevertheless teachers of great enthusiasm, skill and value. Yet they must carry the official stigma of "sub-standard."

The existing method of certification is not

a good one. It tends to admit incompetents into the profession, and to discourage potentially fine teachers from entering it. It is based on a completely false assumption, that the possession of certain stipulated course credits is sufficient evidence of a teacher's competence. We know of no other profession where such evidence is enough. Other means of determining quality for licensing purposes are used in law, medicine, and even barbering.

It seems ironic that in a profession whose practitioners are so thoroughly imbued with the value of testing as a means of determining ability, aptitude and interest, no form of test should generally be used to establish their own qualifications. Instead we are asked to believe that a transcript showing three or four random social studies courses taken at Cyrus Q. Glotz College (accredited), plus several courses in education and a degree from the same institution, constitute satisfactory evidence of preparation for teaching American History anywhere. And conversely we must assume that a Master of Arts in History from say Harvard or Yale, with a rich background of reading and travel, can be only a "sub-standard" teacher of history, if he lacks a couple of credits in Health Education.

We do not question the value of practical training in how to teach. We have seen too many scholars on college faculties who were complete failures as teachers. But there must surely be a more sensible way of evaluating a person's competence to teach than by merely counting credits. We need good teachers too much to rely solely on that type of standard.

The Importance of Teaching the Social Studies in an Age of Science

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In recent years, an ever-increasing number of editorials and articles have appeared in newspapers, popular magazines, and professional journals stressing the urgent need of improving the quality and increasing the quantity of the physical and biological sciences taught in the secondary schools. These writings have stressed the fact that in this age of science we need an ever-greater number of scientists, engineers, and technicians to operate and improve our vast scientific and technological developments. The need for more well trained personnel is great, of course, in both the areas of pure science and technology. We must continue to progress in the numerous areas of science if our economy is to remain healthy and if we are to remain secure in a military sense. These arguments for greater stress on the teaching of science in the schools are sound and we must reckon with them. It is true that if we are to progress at a satisfactory rate in scientific fields, the schools must inculcate scientific attitudes, scientific concepts and the fundamental method of science. Of at least equal importance is the fact that there is also the need of providing all of our pupils with a basic understanding of the meaning of science, its methods, and its fruits.

But what is *not* as clearly recognized is that the growth of the sciences has resulted in social conditions which make it necessary that we place a greater emphasis upon the teaching of the social studies, if we are to preserve democracy. More than ever before our pupils need the insights a reflective consideration of the social studies may develop. This should be obvious; yet it is not.

Perhaps it would be wise at this point to define the term democracy. The meaning I am giving the term is well stated by Robert M. MacIver in the following definition: "Democracy is . . . primarily a way of determining who shall govern and, broadly, to what ends."¹ This definition carries with it the corollaries that there shall be a free flow of conflicting opinion and freedom of assembly for purposes of discussion and organization. Note that this definition expresses the meaning of the concept of democracy solely as a political process. Under this definition of democracy, the majority can adopt any ends except those which would violate a continuation of majority rule, free speech, and free assembly.

MASS COMMUNICATION

Now let us examine some of the conditions created in our society by the growth of science which have created the need for a greater emphasis on the teaching of the social studies in the schools. For one thing, the growth of science and technology has brought extensive change in the area of mass communication. This development has made possible the extension of democratic government over larger geographic areas. At the same time, the development of the means of mass communication has made the maintaining of democratic government more difficult. It is easier to indoctrinate a whole population through methods of propaganda. This has been demonstrated forcefully to us in our time by totalitarian governments of Germany, Italy and Russia. Mussolini's Italy was fashioned with the aid of the printing press and the microphone. Hitler's regime

relied heavily upon techniques made possible by the age of science and invention.

If democratic government is to be maintained, therefore, the individual must be self-directing. He must be able to detect indoctrination. Here the social studies, drawing upon the disciplines of semantics and logic, have a decisive role to play.

Pupils in social studies classes must be taught to recognize dangerous forms of indoctrination and to discount them as they examine important problems in the culture. They must, for example, come to recognize such propaganda devices as card stacking, glittering generalities, middle-of-the-road arguments, the undistributed middle term, guilt by association, and repetition.

Because of the tremendous power of the mass means of communication, it is essential that pupils be made aware of the necessity of keeping these communicative channels open to the free flow of conflicting opinions. For example, an historical study of the long struggle in Western civilization for freedom of speech will help to give the pupils a sense of what is at stake. An analysis of recent and existing totalitarian regimes and the effects of their control of the mass media should help to further clarify the connection between democracy and freedom of speech.

In developing the pupil's skill in detecting propaganda devices, the classroom should increase the pupil's ability to think reflectively. Briefly, this entails increasing the pupil's skill in recognizing and defining problems, formulating possible solutions, and testing these hypotheses against relevant facts. In this effort to increase the pupil's ability to carry forward the reflective act, his attention should be directed to those important problem areas of the culture which are normally closed off from a critical examination in the media of mass communication.

POWER STRUCTURE

Another effect of the growth of science upon society is that science has placed in the hands of government, whether authoritarian or democratic, overwhelming military power.

This fact has grave implications for democracy—both on the domestic scene and in the area of foreign affairs. Prior to the quite recent advances of science and technology—approximately the last 50 years—an informed majority with a deep democratic tradition could maintain their sovereignty. When the squirrel rifle was equal in fire power to the weapons possessed by the government, numbers were decisive. The majority ruled, partly because in the last analysis the majority had the preponderance of military power.

For the first time in modern history we are faced with the problem of preserving democracy in a society in which governments possess military power vastly superior to the armaments available to the private citizens. This fact means that the majority finds it increasingly difficult to resort successfully to revolution, or the threat of revolt, in order to maintain, or secure, democratic government. It is imperative under these circumstances that the rank and file of the population understand the nature of democracy. The individual citizen, therefore, must see clearly what he has at stake in the preservation of democracy. Today the moral conviction of the individual citizen is his major weapon.

Furthermore, it has become increasingly important that the citizen understand the proper role of the military in a democratic government. If democracy is to be preserved, the citizen must understand that policy making must remain in the hands of the civil government, that the military is an agency of policy, not a determiner of it. Many young citizens today have never experienced a time when the military was not a dominant force in the life of the nation.

Given our present power structure, it is vital that the voters select men for public office who have a deep commitment to the democratic process. Men in public office, by the very nature of the present power structure, may be more tempted than men in earlier times to destroy rule by the majority; and they will find it easier to do so. Bertrand Russell states it in these terms:

Mechanical power, I am convinced, tends to generate a new mentality, which makes it more important than in any former age to find ways of controlling governments. Democracy may have become more difficult owing to technical developments, but it has also become more important. The man who has vast mechanical power at his command is likely, if uncontrolled, to feel himself a god—not a Christian God of Love, but a pagan Thor or Vulcan.²

FOREIGN POLICY

There is a general realization today that large scale atomic warfare is unthinkable. Unfortunately, while this realization is a strong deterrent to war, it does not preclude the possibility of such a conflict. The details of negotiation often are complex, calling for technical knowledge. The role of an informed public, therefore, would seem to be that of passing judgment on the results of the negotiation; judgment based upon the consequences of the negotiation. This judgment usually will take the form of voting in national elections.

When the public is uninformed concerning foreign affairs, the demagogue acquires great influence in the area of foreign policy. A "Big Bill" Thompson can threaten to punch King George V in the nose and gain votes by the statement. Father Coughlin can prevent U. S. entry into the World Court with a single radio address—when, and only when, the public is uninformed in the area of foreign policy. Conversely, responsible, able statesmen can act courageously and wisely only when they are supported by an intelligent public.

Since the advent of the guided missile and the atomic bomb, we can no longer afford the luxury of demagoguery in foreign affairs nor the paralysis of decisive, intelligent leadership by the narrow, uninformed views of an ignorant electorate.

If we are to preserve democracy, therefore, the public school must give pupils insights into economic, sociological, psychological, geographical, political and historical concepts which are essential to a basic understanding of foreign policy. Furthermore, the

school must do all in its power to develop in its pupils the habit of suspended judgment, the habit of weighing the facts, the habit of examining the consequences, as they discuss problems in the area of foreign policy.

It is too much to expect that the social studies curriculum will make its pupils experts in foreign affairs. This is not possible, nor is it necessary. But the social studies class may aid the pupils in building broad concepts which they can apply in judging specific proposals and acts of government officials.

CHANGE OF SOCIAL STRUCTURE

The growth of science has led to an increasingly complex and diversified economic and social system. Primary communities are giving way to secondary ones. Adults tend to associate with other members of their own profession, craft, or business, rather than with their neighbors—school teachers associate largely with school teachers, financiers with financiers, lawyers with lawyers, etc. This association is both organized and informal. Teachers have their organizations, as have lawyers, doctors, laborers, etc. These groups, moreover, tend more and more to widen the scope of their interests. Labor unions, for example, formerly largely confined their interests to the wages, hours, and working conditions of their members. Today, while continuing their efforts in these matters, they are taking a stand on such subjects as domestic politics, race relations, consumer education, and foreign policy. And they are conducting extensive educational programs for their members that reach far beyond the technical concerns of their craft.

In the villages and small towns of the 19th century, informal adult association tended to be on a geographical basis—neighbors came into the home for an evening of conversation. Consequently, in the families of the preceding century the children were exposed to a variety of points of view. They heard political issues argued, and the merits of candidates for office discussed.

Today, the children experience a quite different social environment in their homes. To

a large degree, the opinions which they hear from guests in the home and when visiting in the homes of friends of their parents, reinforce the views held by their elders. This tends to be true since the parents associate with like-minded people — members of their own interest group — not their geographical neighbors.

Thus a large percentage of our children are growing up in a home environment in which they "pick up" a single pattern of social, economic, and political beliefs. The effect of the home environment on the child in our interest-group-oriented society is to make him a product of a single socio-economic class. He tends to think and act within the limits of a class. His imagination and intellect are limited in their operation to the confines of class boundaries.

This situation has heightened the importance of the public school in our culture. One single fact stands out concerning the nature of the American public school system: it serves all the children of all the people. The students represent various socio-economic classes, various religious faiths, varying national backgrounds, and different races.

As he lives in the school, under competent teachers the child may come to realize that there are people who hold values different than his: people who have different beliefs and who possess skills and knowledge which he does not have. In his classes, the pupil enters — or should enter — the arena of conflicting opinion. Thus he experiences the meaning of freedom of speech.

In the social studies class, he may enter into critical discussion of social, economic and political issues. Many of the beliefs which he has picked up in the home may be challenged by material he reads and by the beliefs, experiences, and information of other pupils. This type of environment will encourage the pupil to examine his beliefs; examine them in the light of new facts.

The fact that in the school, and particularly in the social studies classes, the pupil is sharply confronted with the desires and goals of other pupils (pupils with different

socio-economic backgrounds) will tend to sharpen his imagination and his sympathies. The conclusions which he arrives at will incorporate, to a degree at least, these wider considerations.

The pupil should be helped to think about the ideas he has picked up in his secondary environment. He may then be expected to emerge from the social studies classroom with tested ideas that are relevant to the nature of the social order. The child is unlikely to secure tested ideas concerning the nature of society outside the school.

The function of the school is neither to destroy the beliefs children hold nor to substitute different ones. The former practice would leave the child with no sense of direction; the latter practice would make of the school an instrument of an authoritarian state. In the latter case, the public school would become what John Stuart Mill thought it to be when he wrote:

A general state education is a mere contrivance for molding people to be exactly like one another: and the mold in which it casts them is that which pleases the predominant power in the government, whether this be a monarch, a priesthood, an aristocracy, or the majority of the existing generation, in proportion as it is efficient and successful, it establishes a despotism over the mind leading by natural tendency to one over the body.³

SUMMARY

In the foregoing paragraphs, several social conditions created by science and technology which threaten the continued existence of the democratic process are discussed. It is my contention that a greater emphasis must be placed upon teaching the social studies if these social conditions are to be dealt with intelligently and the democratic process preserved.

¹ MacIver, Robert M. *The Web of Government*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947. Pp. 198.

² Russell, Bertrand. *Power, A New Social Analysis*. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1938. Pp. 32.

³ Mill, John Stuart. *On Liberty, in Utilitarianism, On Liberty, and Representative Government*. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc., 1950. Pp. 217.

In the Pursuit of Excellence

The Use of Outline Maps

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Quality and excellence are key words in our time. We hear less about personality development and more about solid work in mathematics, less about social adjustment and more about home work, less about automatic promotion and more about honest grades, less about protecting the inferior student and more about challenging the superior boy and girl.

Starting with a new emphasis upon mathematics and science, just after the Russians placed Sputnik I in orbit, this emphasis upon excellence, upon academic ability, has spread throughout our public school system. Rightly so, for in the final battle for the minds and hearts of mankind, excellence in English or art or social studies is just as important as in mathematics or science.

In accepting the challenge of our time, the demand that students be required to work, to learn, to think at higher levels and increased tempo, teachers are turning to new materials and new techniques. We hear much about teaching machines, E. T. V. programmed learning. It would be barely short of tragic if, in the process of adopting and adapting these newer aids, we forgot or ignored those tools that have served us well in the past.

One of the most effective tools that the social studies teacher can use—and it can also be used by teachers of languages, music, art, science and literature—is the *outline map*.

In general, an *outline map* is considered to be a flat map on which only the minimum of boundaries are shown. Occasionally such maps also show principal rivers and mountains. Most frequently used are the desk maps. Each student is provided with a map, either for the purpose of following instruc-

tion in class, or for a work assignment. Larger outline maps, known as wall outline maps, are also useful. This is especially true when the teacher is lecturing or introducing a unit of work.

One of the real advantages of the outline map is its inexpensiveness. No school system at all familiar with the terrific expense of the newer techniques and materials should hesitate to purchase outline maps in generous quantity.

Two of the most difficult relationships for children in the lower elementary grades are the problems of time and place. Perhaps nothing is so valuable in overcoming the latter problem as the outline map. This may be a simple, hand-drawn map of the school grounds and the neighboring streets, prepared by the teacher and used by the smaller children. Such maps can be completed by the youngsters—naming of streets, locating houses and street crossings and stop-lights, and even showing compass directions.

Outline maps can be used by any alert teacher to promote a feeling of place security and place sense. The teacher may start with outline maps of his state and then progress to larger political units.

This matter of simple location is important. Skill in place location and the development of real place sense come with frequent practice. This writer doubts that any device or method can be used to develop in pupils a real understanding of place location and place relationship as effectively as can be done with individual outline maps.

Feature identification is also important. The fifth-grade youngster, studying American history, is at a real disadvantage if he cannot look at a map and identify the Missouri and the Mississippi Rivers correctly.

This identification, like place location, needs to be repeated often and continued through the intermediate grades.

In both review and testing, the social studies teacher in the elementary grades can make frequent and effective use of outline maps. The large wall-type outline is wonderful for review sessions. Individual desk maps are often used for part of an examination.

This use of outline maps for both review and testing can be extended into the junior and senior high school. It is important that social studies teachers in grades seven through twelve continue some of the exercises in geographical appreciation and understanding that were initiated in the middle grades. High school and college teachers of history, for example, frequently complain because their students are, they claim, geographically illiterate. They thus overlook the fact that they themselves are in part at fault; that history and geography are inexorably linked, and therefore that no teacher of one can afford to ignore the other.

From time to time exercises in place location and in identification should be assigned, all through the junior and senior high school years. For ease of both assignment and checking, the use of commercially prepared outline maps is superior to any other method. Such exercises assist the student in retaining knowledge of place, distance and direction that he first acquired in the middle grades.

All map assignments in the secondary school should be made in recognition of the value of progression from the simple to the complex, from the easy to the more difficult. While many teachers in the intermediate grades may use this principle in planning their work, there should be conscious acceptance of it in grades seven through twelve. Individual differences can be accommodated in this way, but every high school student should realize that his map work is becoming more difficult. For one example, the simple location of the Missouri River has value in a class of fifth graders learning about Lewis and Clark for the first time. An eighth or

eleventh grade class, however, should be able to relate the Missouri to such other features as the Continental Divide, the Columbia River, the problem of flood control on the lower Mississippi.

The major use of outline maps in secondary school social studies classes is related to learning or at least to demonstrating relationships. When we think in terms of challenging gifted students, of encouraging sound thinking and critical analysis, or even of the task of developing an intelligent awareness of problems and conditions among all citizens, this matter of relationships becomes a factor of major importance.

In discussing the use of outline maps, numerous writers have argued that an outline map, especially the individual desk map, should be used to locate or show only a single feature. The basic reasoning here is good; it hangs upon the easily established fact that a map which is cluttered by too much detail becomes meaningless to the student.

In the elementary grades no one would argue with the above point of view. A sixth-grade class, busy with the location of European capitals, should not be asked to include pre-Versailles national boundaries on the same map. A fifth-grade class at work establishing the principal routes of travel to the Far West, should not be asked to include the dates, names and boundaries of our territorial acquisitions.

As we reach more advanced work on the secondary level, however, there is a real justification for the use of an outline map to include two or more features. This should never be the attempt of a teacher to economize—these maps are so inexpensive anyway—but rather should be done to show relationships. Recognizing and really understanding relationships can often be among the most important values derived from work in the social sciences.

Such a relationship sometimes involves two geographic features. A high school teacher of American history, in connection with a unit on the American Revolution, might give each of his students an outline

map and then make the following assignment: "On this outline map of the southeastern United States, I want you to locate two sets of data. First, the principal rivers in Virginia and the two Carolinas. Second, the principal centers of population during the last half of the eighteenth century. On the classroom shelves you will find several books to help you. Among these are the large historical atlas of the United States that we were using last week, Lossing's *Pictorial Field Book of the American Revolution*, and the *West Point Atlas of American Wars*. Other books, including our own textbook, will be of help. This map will be due a week from next Wednesday."

On the day the above assigned maps became due, the teacher might display a wall map showing the routes of Cornwallis, Campbell and Green, as well as the principal "hide-outs" of Marion and Sumter, during the Revolution. He might then conduct a discussion that would revolve around (a) the reasons for the British campaigns in the Southern states, (b) the importance of rivers to both civilian living and military occupation, and finally (c) the relationship between transportation, communication and population growth.

Some teachers will at once protest that their school libraries do not contain the books and materials necessary for such an assignment. Many of the same final objectives, though not all of the work experiences, can be obtained if the teacher will display several wall maps showing principal geographical features and population centers. Then the students can transfer the appropriate information to their own outline maps.

Another example of the use of outline maps to show the relationship between two geographic factors would be to take an outline map of the eastern United States and show, in one color, the principal routes to the western settlements between 1750 and 1815. Then, with another color, show the principal settlements west of the mountains between 1775 and 1815. Students preparing and discussing such a map would gain new and per-

haps lasting appreciation of the role of rivers and mountain passes in establishing the pattern of our Westward movement.

A different type of relationship that can be shown by the use of outline maps involves a geographic and an economic factor. For instance, a class in world history, studying the expansion of Europe in the 16th century, might be given this double assignment. On an outline map of the world, students could be asked to show the principal seaports and trade routes known to exist at some period such as 1650 to 1700. Then on the same map, with different shading or color, the students could show the territorial claims and principal settlements of Spain, Portugal, Holland and Great Britain.

Another comparable assignment, involving geographic and economic factors, could be used in either the eighth or eleventh grades. A class studying the Civil War and its background, might be given an outline map. The class could be asked to locate the areas where cotton, corn and wheat were produced in the decade of the 1850's. On the reverse of the map they might prepare graphs to show changes in annual production of each of the three commodities. The final step would be to locate all railroads existing in 1850, and then to show new railroad construction between 1850 and 1860. Students with such information on their desks are in a position to understand the roles of agricultural production and railroad building in such events or conditions as the vote of the Northwest for Lincoln in 1860, the decision of the South to secede, and the neutrality of Great Britain.

Yet a third way of using outline maps to combine two types of information deals with cultural and economic data. A class in senior high school American history might show, on desk outline maps, those areas of the nation where the quantity and the value of manufacturing increased between 1890 and 1910. Using a different color or shading, the students could then show on the same map the percentage increase in foreign born residents during the same period.

A somewhat similar exercise would be to

show the extent of a certain industry, at intervals of ten, twenty or fifty years. Four maps might show the location of the textile industry in 1850, 1875, 1900 and 1925. The percentage of inhabitants of different national groups might be shown for each major manufacturing area, on each of the four maps. Thus a teacher could illustrate such facts as: (1) the new immigrant usually did the most unpleasant or poorest-paid work, and (2) certain national groups seemed to

work in sequence. (For example, in the New England textile mills the Irish were followed by the Polish and they, in turn, by the French-Canadians.)

The above illustrations can be multiplied, a hundred times, by any imaginative social studies teacher. There is a real need for more vital, dynamic and imaginative instruction in the social studies. One way to move in that direction is through the expanded use of desk and wall outline maps.

Introductory Unit — American History — “Slow-Learners”

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BEGINNING UNIT FOR BASIC STUDENTS AMERICAN HISTORY

Introduction

The thesis of the authors of a previous article in *THE SOCIAL STUDIES** involved the use of current events as a beginning unit for the study of American History; however, it was not intended primarily for a basic—or slow-learning—group. This paper traces an attempt to combine current events with use of a specific text. *History of a Free People*, by Bragdon and McCutchen, opens with a prologue of ten central themes and their attendant pictorial illustrations. The authors indicate that these ten themes exemplify the fundamental parts of the “American Experiment.”¹

In addition to the standard text, which, in all frankness, is too difficult for a slow-learner to comprehend, but one which we are forced by school-system directives to use, work was done with the booklets from the *Living Democracy Series*, written and pub-

lished under the auspices of the Civic Education Center of Tufts University.²

Four methods of comparison were chosen because of the peculiar nature of Rincon—and Arizona, in general—students. This is a highly transient area; many of our students have travelled extensively in this country and overseas, thus having had a chance for comparisons and contrasts not readily available to others. The unit was also designed with thoughts of trying to incorporate the ideas of others who have worked with the problem of teaching basic students (see Appendix). The outline was planned to be sufficiently flexible to permit student initiative on assignments, and to allow for other types of class-work, such as discussions, reading of topical materials, and presentation of films and film strips. The various divisions of unit requirements and methods of presentation afford chances of varying the work during the marking period and in the course of a single class session.

Rincon is a drastically over-crowded school; it is now on three staggered shifts and next year plans to operate with two dis-

* “Upside Down But Not Backwards. Beginning U. S. History with a Unit on Current Events,” by Richard E. Gross and Dwight W. Allen. *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, October, 1958.

tinct sessions. Like most other comprehensive high schools, many of our basic students represent social and emotional problems rather than simple lack of academic ability. Therefore, this unit had two primary goals:

- A. To allow for as much intensive study-skills work as was possible during the first six weeks.
- B. To eliminate a "pressurized" atmosphere from the classroom.

Only *five* weeks of preparation are listed for this beginning unit. The reasons for this are three-fold: 1. School normally starts on a Tuesday following Labor Day, thus shortening that first week. Because of our extremely crowded conditions, I wanted to spend most of the first week in seeking additional information about these pupils, and to allow opportunities for them to react to me and to one another. 2. Schedule changes occur frequently during the first few days. Our sectioning program is in its first year, and, in addition, we invariably have numerous late-registrants. 3. I always ask my American History students—regardless of ability level—to write a short history of their own lives during the first or second day. This gives me a chance to know more about them, and also furnishes clues concerning academic ability.

Objectives—Student

1. To acquire a better understanding of the relationship between history and the present.
2. To become acquainted with the nature of reading-for-study purposes.
3. To use all innate talents—art, speech, writing (both prose and poetry).
4. To capitalize on past experiences.

Objectives—Teacher

1. To devise an arrangement which permits more attention for individual students.
2. To encourage use of all methods of presenting an idea—not just reading, and then parrotting back information to the instructor.
3. To make history more vital and interesting.

4. To allow for, and use, past experiences of students within the class.

Basic Skills Involved

1. Reading—remedial work attempted here, plus vocabulary drill with pocket dictionaries available in class sets.
2. Art—various types of drawing; forms of symbols.
3. Speech—limited to short duration; some remedial work needed with one or two of the students in this particular class.
4. Study skills — working with graphs, charts, diagrams; limited work in taking notes.
5. Notebook preparation—presenting a coherent, logically-developed idea, not merely the cutting-out of pictures.

Directions for the Unit

- I. Introduction to the text:
 - A. An intensive study of the prologue (emphasize the importance of carefully reading the introductory portions of all books).
 - B. A comparison of the themes listed in the prologue with their pictorial illustrations immediately following.
 - C. A trial run-through on gathering news clippings relating to one of the ten themes.
- II. Requirements: There are ten points (themes) listed in the opening section of our book.
 - A. Select any five (5) to work with (one unit of work due each week).
 - B. Provide one news or magazine article for each theme.
 - C. Choose from the following methods of presentation.
 1. Yesterday and Today—changes which have occurred between earlier times in America and today.
 2. Here and Overseas—treatment of this theme by other nations.
 3. Between States—Arizona's treatment compared to other states.
 4. Meaning for Your Life—relationship of theme to your life or your future.

III. Skills or Abilities Demanded:

- A. One theme presented orally—a short oral report.
- B. One theme covered by a written exercise—basic information plus *your* ideas.
- C. One theme illustrated by pictures, drawings, sketches—no need to be an artist (few of us are); stick figures will serve as long as their meaning is clear.
- D. One theme presented in the form of a map, graph, or chart. (See the first several pages in your text for ideas on what to do in items C and D. You will be asked to reproduce these last two on the blackboard.)
- E. The fifth and *final* assignment should combine writing, speaking, and drawings. (The first four themes may be presented in any order you choose, but the last one must be done in the manner described above.)

IV. Materials Needed:

- A. Your text—the introductory section plus those areas in which you do research.
- B. A notebook including:
 - 1. The five news articles.
 - 2. All written work and drawings, etc.
 - 3. Any additional work which may be assigned in the course of the marking period.

V. Grading:

- A. You will receive a weekly grade based on the specific theme chosen for each week, plus any other daily grades resulting from work done during that week.
- B. A notebook based on:
 - 1. Logical order and presentation of contents.
 - 2. The degree to which the notebook relates to your individual work and to the general activity of the six weeks.

Evaluation

In general, it was felt that the unit accom-

plished most of its goals. The notebooks were well prepared and study skills did show improvement. Speaking was the most difficult task for the great majority of class members, and some of them were not able to use all four methods of presentation. The drawings were good, some of them outstanding, and this particular phase suggested possibilities for the future. I definitely feel that our two primary goals were attained; this has been a well behaved, hard working group. Absenteeism has been the lowest of any basic group I have encountered. All in all, I believe the students involved gained considerably from the unit, and I know that it opened new vistas of classroom techniques for the instructor. Obviously, I will need to revise some sections, and the unit will have to be used with other groups of basic students in order to gain cross-evaluations, but our first six weeks helped to give us a fine start for the school year.

Appendix

"Revolutionizing the Teaching of the Social Studies to the Slow Learner," Dr. Jack Abramowitz, *Social Education*, May, 1959.

1. The term's course of study must be defined to exclude non-essentials.
2. The essential ideas and concepts to be taught must be broken down and taught on a day-to-day basis.
3. All work must be fixed at a reading level of the students. (Personally, I firmly believe that most of the alleged "average" history texts are beyond the range of many of our students. What the authors of such texts accept as the average reading level in our classes often fails to correspond with reality. Our next step at Rincon is to adopt a text suitable for our basic classes.)
4. Each day's work must begin with a review of the work done to date in the unit being studied.
5. Repetition of learnings must be constant and the pace of learning must be slowed to meet the needs of the class.
6. The class must feel it is covering the same

fundamental course as the rest of the school. The students must feel, too, that as they improve in reading and comprehension they will have the opportunity to move into the regular track. (To illustrate: I am moving one student from my class into an "average" section at the semester.)

(Counseling records for all students in this class were carefully checked before school opened; if records were not available then, or in the case of new students, a second attempt was made to gain this information.)

"The Teaching Machine," *Think Magazine*, March, 1959 — Homework and Transfer of Training, as compiled by B. F. Skinner, professor of psychology at Harvard University.

Author's Four Rules: 1. Reinforce desired behavior as promptly as possible. 2. Reinforce as frequently as possible. 3. Shape behavior into the desired form through a series of small steps. 4. Reinforce by rewarding rather than punishing, as far as possible, and especially avoid harsh punishment.

Violations by Schools: 1. Reinforcement is usually delayed. Thus a student turns in his homework, and two days later gets it back with a grade on it. 2. Reinforcement is quite infrequent. Only a very few of the innumerable small steps in learning are reinforced through being graded or through receiving a teacher's approval in class recitation. 3. Reinforcement is applied to large blocks of complex behavior instead of the tiny, separate steps in learning—like rewarding pigeons when they happen to walk in a figure of eight, instead of guiding them into it. 4. Finally, though corporal punishment has vanished from most American schools, the main motivation toward proper behavior is still fear. Thus a student sits at his desk filling in his workbook in order to avoid the teacher's displeasure, a bad grade, a talk with the principal, or an unfavorable report to his parents.

¹ Bragdon and McCutchen, *History of a Free People*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1956. p. xi, xii, xiii.

² Particular use was made of two of the series: No. 2, "They Made A Nation," and No. 13, "Men To Remember."

Social Change in Soviet Society

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The Social Heritage of Tsarism. On November 7, 1959, the U.S.S.R. celebrated the forty-second anniversary of the establishment of the communist regime. During this relatively short period, a backward, inefficient, largely illiterate and agricultural society has been transformed into a scientifically advanced, educated, reasonably efficient, and industrial society. Evaluation of the present and possible future impact of Communism requires information about the changes, and about the process of and reasons for change. Although the purpose of this paper is to discuss social changes in Soviet society, some reference will necessarily be made to the related political and economic changes.

Like all other societies, Tsarist Russia could be described in terms of classes. The upper class consisted of wealthy nobles, important government officials, high ranking military officers, and the higher clergy. The middle class, which was comparatively small, included small business men, shop keepers, rural clergy, and the lower ranks of the bureaucracy. Skilled and unskilled workers and peasants made up a very large lower class. Individual members of the clergy and intelligentsia belonged to one or other of the classes, but these two groups stood apart from classes, and the intelligentsia exerted a special influence on society. Although the barriers between the classes were not impossible, social mobility in Tsarist society

was very limited. The differences between classes in terms of education, opportunity, standards of living and even manner of dressing and speaking were extreme.

The Tsar and his immediate family, at the pinnacle of the upper class, lived in flamboyant luxury. In general, members of the upper class were relatively well-to-do, influential and well educated. However, the wealth of Russian nobles varied greatly as indicated by the fact that prior to the abolishment of serfdom at least one person owned more than 300,000 serfs, while many owned less than 21 male serfs.¹ The leisurely life of the nobility was very different from that of the persons whom they exploited. However, the position of a member of the upper class was not securely guaranteed. For example, there were two major reasons for the impoverishment of wealthy land owners. First, such landowners often accepted governmental administrative positions, or joined the armed forces. Under such circumstances their main interest in the estate would be in the income derived from it. Estate managers most frequently enriched themselves at the expense of the owners. Secondly, the Tsarist inheritance law required that estates be divided among the children, with each daughter getting one-fourteenth of the estate, and the sons inheriting equally. Many of the large estates were thus subdivided with each of the inheritors living in a state of relative poverty. An impoverished nobleman or landowner could become socially unacceptable. Although the nobility had no legally determined privileges, they had enhanced opportunities for education and for promotion in the administration, armed forces, and at court. The Tsar and the upper class were mutually interdependent. He needed the support of the upper class to maintain his autocratic power; in return he protected the status quo of the upper class.

The small middle class, well-to-do in comparison to the unfortunate lower class, enjoyed a moderate standard of living. Only a few were illiterate. Most members of this class resided in towns. Within the middle class there was a fair amount of mobility. A

burgher or an artisan could become a merchant by changing occupations and paying fees to the appropriate organization. Although the burghers, shop keepers and artisans were looked down upon by members of the upper class, occasionally a nobleman or landowner found himself demoted to the middle class.

At the bottom of the social and economic ladder were the peasants, who made up more than eighty per cent of the entire population. Only domestic servants had a lower status. Until the Emancipation in 1861, the peasantry lived in serfdom and were brutally exploited. Occasional unsuccessful serf uprisings were cruelly suppressed. Even after the abolishment of serfdom, the lot of the peasantry was not appreciably improved. The land belonged to the communes rather than to individuals, and had to be paid for over a period of forty-nine years. Individual freedom was strictly curtailed, and decisions such as whether a member would be allowed to leave the commune were made by the Village Assembly of the commune. A new class of independent farmers began to emerge only after the Stolypin reform (1906), and this movement toward independence from the commune was halted by World War I. Had a large class of independent farmers been established, one of the most appealing Bolshevik slogans, "land to the peasants," would not have been meaningful. During the Tsarist regime, the peasantry were exploited, poverty stricken, hungry for land, backward, religious, and illiterate.

The orthodox clergy represented a group apart from the rest of the population. Although many of the clergy enjoyed the respect of the people, many others indulged in un-Christian activities such as bribery, stealing, brawling and drinking. The generated disrespect tended to be directed toward all clergy. The Orthodox church, which performed very few social services, tended to separate itself from the population. The clergy, like the upper class, were a pillar of Tsarism.

The intelligentsia, though few in number,

were strong in influence. Recruited from all classes, the intelligentsia, bound together exclusively by ideas, especially social ones, formed a social stratum which stood above classes.² The intelligentsia did not include only educated people. Members of this group, opposing the Tsarist system with its class differentiation and privileges, and propagating liberalism, socialism, radicalism, and communism, were revolutionary advocates.

By 1917, Tsarist society included the essential ingredients for a major revolutionary movement. The ruling Tsar was a weak man, dominated by his wife, who had no concern for the welfare of the people. The rich, educated, privileged few in the upper class co-operated with the Tsar in the exploitation of the downtrodden. The small middle class was relatively lacking in influence. The church had ceased to perform a very useful function in society. The lower class, always oppressed, was land hungry, illiterate, backward, and easily led. The tremendous sacrifices demanded of them in World War I added to their already great hardships. They were ready for any change. In March, 1917, the Tsarist regime was overthrown in an almost bloodless revolution. Shortly thereafter, a small group of intelligentsia, inspired by the doctrines of Marx, dissatisfied with the existing condition of their country, and full of idealistic ambition for the future, utilized the general dissatisfaction and the revolutionary outburst. The Provisional Government established in March, 1917, was overthrown by the second, or Bolshevik revolution of November, 1917³. At that time the so-called Dictatorship of the Proletariat was established. Because of the plight of the masses, almost any revolutionary group could have obtained support by promising change. The Bolsheviks offered the changes which were most urgently desired: "Bread for the workers; Peace for the soldiers; Land for the peasants."

The Classless Society. The goal of this "Workers' and Peasants' Government" was the establishment of a socialistic economic system. The expropriation of the means of production to eliminate the exploiting class

was required. The workers, previously grossly exploited, became the dominant members of the new society. All sections of the population, excluding only the former exploiters, belonged to the worker or proletarian group. In some cases, even the former exploiters were given proletarian privileges if they demonstrated their acceptance of the Party program. Educated people rather than bench workers provided leadership for the Party.

The Marxists do not divide society into upper, middle and lower classes, nor do they recognize the intelligentsia as a separate class. Until 1936, under the Dictatorship of the Proletariat the three officially recognized classes were the workers, peasants and former exploiters. By 1936 the former capitalistic employers were completely replaced by the State, and hence the exploiter class had disappeared. Since peasants worked on collective farms where all property excluding land belongs to the collective, while all other workers including State farm workers were employed in state owned enterprises, Stalin declared, in 1936, that there were still two classes, the working class and the peasant class. Thus, although the conditions for the existence of class antagonisms and of classes generally were removed, Stalin argued that Soviet society was only proceeding toward a classless society, since the antagonistic or capitalistic class was eliminated, and remaining classes, the workers and peasants, were "friendly classes." Should collective farms be transformed into state farms, then in the sense that almost the entire population would be state employees, perhaps it could be claimed that a classless society had been established.

Stalin considered the intelligentsia, although members of the working class, to be a special group or "stratum." Immediately following the Bolshevik revolution, careful appeals were made to all sections of the population except to the exploiters. The intelligentsia was informed that it had been exploited by the capitalist, that it had been demeaned by working for unscrupulous business men, and that greater dignity was asso-

ciated with working for the state, for the entire society, and therefore for one's own benefit. Such appeals were not eminently successful. Many of the intelligentsia in Russia, like those in Western Europe, were skeptical about the Bolshevik experiment, and hesitated or passively resisted it. Others of the intelligentsia had to be removed from important positions because of active opposition to the regime. A minority gave invaluable support to the Communist movement, since the supporting minority provided almost all of the Party leaders.

The stabilization of the regime, and the introduction of the planned economy caused many of the old intelligentsia to revise their opinions. Although some had little choice, many gave their support to the regime voluntarily. Concurrently, a new Soviet intelligentsia was being developed. This group, mostly derived from the worker and peasant classes, has never been suspected by the Soviet leaders. By 1936, suspicion had disappeared, and the entire intelligentsia stratum was accorded social equality with the two "friendly classes."

Article I in Chapter I of the Constitution of the U.S.S.R. states, "The Union of the Soviet Socialist Republics is a socialistic state of workers and peasants." Almost all of the Party leaders could be labelled as intelligentsia. If the intelligentsia were officially differentiated from the worker and peasant classes, then the worker's and peasant's state would be governed by another class, the intelligentsia.

Changing Views of Equality. Marxism, directed toward the masses of the poor, and against the economically dominant class, demands complete economic equality, since under capitalism economic inequality is the cause of class antagonisms. It is maintained that equality and democracy could be introduced only after a proletarian revolution which removes the economically dominant class. However, equality could not be achieved immediately after the overthrow of the bourgeois regime. Only under communism, the final stage of socialism, could

complete equality, based on the principle "from each according to his ability, to each according to his need," be established. Marx did not specify the approximate length of the transitory socialistic period, necessary prior to the establishment of the final stage of communism. During the transitory period, Marxism does not call for equality of income.

Misinterpretation of the Marxist doctrine with reference to equality was apparent, immediately following the revolution. In 1917, Lenin, in his "State and Revolution" said, "The whole society will have become a single office and a single factory with equality of labor and equality of pay."⁴ It was not realized by the revolutionaries that much time would intervene before equalitarianism of this kind could be effected, if ever.

Since circumstances required the introduction of practices at variance with what theory demanded at that stage of development, Soviet leaders, headed by Lenin, initially made "tactical retreats" with reference to equality. During the period of wartime Communism, which followed the Bolshevik Revolution, equal pay for all, excluding only technical experts, was introduced. The experiment in equal pay lasted only until the New Economic Policy (NEP) in 1921. Some rewards had to be given immediately to the starving population, fighting against the White Armies (anti-communist armies led by former Tsarist generals), and foreign intervention (British, French, American, etc). Although attractive slogans, great promises for the future, and the mistakes of opponents provided motivation for the Bolshevik cause, the Soviet leadership had little immediate material remuneration to offer in exchange for the great sacrifices demanded of the population. Everything that was "Tsarist" was changed. For example, all former ranks, titles and distinctions were abolished; ministers were renamed "Peoples Commissars," and military ranks were replaced by the title "comrade-commander." The most tangible reward was the abolition of differential incomes, which was, however, counter-balanced by a differential system of food ration-

ing, with soldiers, factory workers, children, "responsible workers" and certain others being given additional rations. The non-communist world was amused by the experiment in equalized wages. Of greater importance, the experiment lead to a decrease in productivity and therefore could not survive.

At the end of War Communism, piece-work wages and bonuses were introduced, followed by even larger differences between the lowest and highest incomes in the industrialization after the NEP period. The Soviet leadership rejected the idea of equality of income, because planning called for intensive efforts to increase productivity. Higher salaries were paid to skilled workers, technical experts and factory managers, a procedure which is still in effect. In addition, such people and others, including engineers, inventors, composers and artists, receive privileged housing.

At present, Soviet society is one of the most competitive societies in the world. Differential incomes and prestige act as effective incentives. Prestige is bolstered by publishing the names of outstanding workers, medals often connected with economic advantages, and titles such as Hero of Socialist labor. The idea of equality of opportunity has replaced the idea of equality of income. In the U.S.S.R. no one is to be discriminated against because of nationality, race, or sex, according to Articles 122 and 123 of the Constitution. Available evidence indicates that in the main, these particular constitutional rights are upheld in practice. Well-trained specialists in all fields are needed in the constantly expanding economy. No social barrier prevents a competent individual from achieving a position of responsibility, if he is politically reliable. In the main, equality of opportunity is a reality.

It is apparent that the current practice of equality differs greatly from that of the early days War Communism. Criticism directed against high incomes has become obsolete. Different kinds of work have different importance and therefore different rewards. The inequality of income cannot be inter-

preted as yet as a retreat in ideology. Since the U.S.S.R. has achieved only the state of socialism,⁵ and has not yet progressed to communism, this practice corresponds fully to the theory. However, it is doubtful whether the Soviet citizens accustomed to their tough competitive system will want to progress to the noncompetitive, utopian communism outlined by Marx.

Groups In Soviet Society. The term "workers" in Soviet society is defined very broadly. Soviet publications refer not only to factory workers, but also to others such as agricultural, musical, medical, scientific, and transportation workers. This broad interpretation is accepted for two major reasons. First, since the 1936 Constitution defines the Soviet state as a "socialistic state of workers and peasants," high prestige is associated with the label "worker." Secondly, it reflects an equation of manual and mental labor, from the point of view of the government, which prefers to have a unified classless society composed of "workers." Since the initiation of Communist ideology, workers were considered the most advanced or class conscious group among all toilers, because initially they were wage earners and little interested in private property which they did not possess.

Workers in Soviet society have been accorded great prestige. However, in spite of the fact that they are recognized as the ruling class and are fully represented in all political institutions, in actuality high governmental positions are held by "educated workers" only.

Like the rest of the population, Soviet workers have suffered extreme hardships since 1914 because of World War I, civil war and foreign intervention with the resulting starvation, speedy industrialization without foreign loans, preparation for war, World War II, rapid reconstruction, and re-emphasis on industrialization. Since all these had to be financed by the population, standards of living were very low.

The initial phases of industrialization were very difficult. Because of a lack of skilled, semi-skilled and even unskilled workers, the

agricultural population, both male and female, had to fill the gap. Peasants, or even worse, nomadic peoples, were required to operate complex, expensive machinery in new factories. Their lack of experience with machinery, tardiness, and irresponsibility led to waste, damage, and inefficiency. The vigilant Party and police had difficulty in distinguishing between mistakes and sabotage. Prosecutions of individual workers and managers were frequent. However, accumulating experience, the diligent training of workers, and the removal of illiteracy permitted the gradual development of a large pool of millions of skilled workers. The transition to industrialization was not easy.

The Soviet citizen has both the duty and the right to work. Article 12 of the Constitution states,

"work in the U.S.S.R. is a duty and a matter of honor for every able bodied citizen, in accordance with the principle: 'He who does not work, neither shall he eat.' The principle applied is that of socialism: From each according to his ability, to each according to his work."

On the other hand, Article 118 reads,

"Citizens of the U.S.S.R. have the right to work, that is, the right to guaranteed employment and payment for their work in accordance with its quantity and quality. The right to work is ensured by the socialist organization of the national economy, the steady growth of the productive forces of Soviet society, the elimination of the possibility of economic crises, and the abolition of unemployment."

Should the real income of Soviet workers be increased, the right to work, something which a capitalistic economy does not and cannot guarantee, will become a powerful argument in the competition between free enterprise and communist ideologies. The prestige associated with manual work in the U.S.S.R. is another factor to be considered in such a competition.

A worker who is able to increase production norms is called a shock worker (*udarnik*)

and is accorded great prestige. His wages are greatly increased, and he is given better living accommodations, food, consumer goods, and preferential treatment in preventative medicine. His work is considered to equal outstanding work in science, art or medicine. Although relatively few workers achieve shock worker status, only a small fraction of the persons in any field are given outstanding recognition.

After the Bolshevik Revolution, the peasantry was singled out for discrimination, in spite of the fact that the U.S.S.R. called itself a state of workers and peasants. The peasantry, with its pro-capitalistic attitude, exemplified by the desire for land ownership, was considered politically and culturally backward. Yet the government could not disregard them because of their number and importance. Initially, it gained their support by confiscating huge estates and distributing the land to large numbers of peasants. Although the theoretically correct policy of establishing state and collective farms (*sovkhозes* and *kolkhozes*) which was eventually followed, would have antagonized fewer people in the long run, the Communist leaders distributed the land to satisfy the peasant temporarily, to obtain his support, and to enhance agricultural production during the difficult period following the revolution. The NEP introduced by Lenin permitted private farming to flourish. By 1929 collectivization was forcefully introduced, and rich farmers, considered to be the last remnants of capitalism, were removed from the scene. The peasants were transformed into agricultural workers.

Prior to 1936 the peasantry was placed under the leadership or guidance of workers, who were considered to be more advanced politically. Peasants were discriminated against with respect to voting power, admission to the Party, and social prestige. Currently, the collective farm workers, as the peasants are now called, have the same political rights, social status, and opportunities for distinction study and promotion as do the factory workers. Many have become ag-

ricultural specialists, heroes of Socialistic Labor and shock workers. The educational opportunities for children of collective farm workers, including secondary schools and university correspondence courses are adequate, though perhaps not so conveniently located as those available to the children of factory workers. The prestige associated with manual work in agriculture equals that in industry.

Soviet professional people, almost all of whom work for the state, a *kolkhoz*, a trade union or some other socialistic agency, are most adequately described as professional workers. As previously indicated, the intelligentsia of the Tsarist era was greatly mistrusted by the Soviet leaders. However, with the establishment of a new intelligentsia, the mistrust subsided. The competitive Soviet society is willing to admire and pay for the skill and training of the professional worker. However, since virtual equality of opportunity is the general rule, the more highly paid professional workers cannot be said to have special privileges.

Every society has its elite, and though it would not be admitted in the U.S.S.R., the Soviet society is no exception. The elite in the U.S.S.R. are the Soviet leadership or the political elite, and the professional or intellectual elite. The political elite consists of the leaders of the Communist party of the U.S.S.R. who are at the same time the state leaders. The climb on the political ladder demands great skill, endurance, and diligence, combined with a good measure of luck. The person who aspires to become one of the political elite must be proficient in his own field, an example of competence and diligence to his fellow workers, thoroughly trained in Marxism-Leninism, and active in Party meetings and in agitating for the Party program. Friends within the Party must be selected carefully, because a political career may be ruined by the mistake of an associate. Should he achieve success, his tenure as a member of the political elite is extremely uncertain. From a successful Party functionary or even a member of the leadership

to an opportunist and an "enemy of the Party" is a short step.

The professional elite includes people of extreme competence, regardless of field, such as the most successful artists, scientists, generals, shock workers, industrial managers and engineers. The elite, like the intelligentsia, because of divergence of interest does not and cannot form a cohesive group. The Communist Party promotes and supports the professional elite and, in turn, finds among the elite some of its strongest supporters.

Although the professional elite tend to have more stability and security than the political elite, the degree of security varies with the field. Physicists or mathematicians face less risk than historians or economists of equal prominence due to the inherent danger in the social sciences *vis a vis* the regime. Even the most sincere admirer of the regime may miss the changed Party line and fall into disgrace. Other experts, such as composers, may be exposed to an attack by the Party, too, but their "mistakes" are less offensive to the regime and are, therefore, considered less serious. Confession and self-criticism are usually sufficient remedies or atonements.

The Soviet elite gets high rewards including privileges, for high contributions. Privileges cannot be inherited and are therefore accessible to everyone. The elite, being recruited from all classes, is not itself a class, but rather individual, competent persons, dependent on the state which encourages brilliant careers. It should be added that the quality of the professional elite is such that its members would get the same or higher rewards in any other country. The political elite was discussed separately because of its political function. Were it not for this distinction most of the members of political elite would belong to the professional elite.⁶

Social and Economic Mobility and Change. After every great social revolution the existing system is destroyed and the privileges of the dominant class are abolished. After an intermediate stage of anarchy, a new govern-

ment is formed, and new law and order created. There is always a kind of spoils system in that the new administrative positions are filled by the revolutionaries. A new dominant class gradually evolves. The Soviet revolution abolished the capitalistic system and replaced it with what it calls a socialistic system of economy. The new government needed not only people for the governmental administration, but also for the administration of the economy. Like any other country, the Soviet state needed talented and well-trained people. The government achieved its goal. It created the new elite and a large, steadily growing group of scientific, technical, and administrative personnel. It created millions of qualified workers and agricultural specialists. Changing the old, backward agricultural country into a modern industrial state called for millions of people to "move up," to study, specialize, and accept positions with greater responsibilities and better salaries. The introduction of economic planning accelerated this process. With the rapidly growing economy, millions of new specialists are needed. The slowdown of social and economic mobility is not in sight as yet. Because of the great need for specialists, everything is being done to encourage the whole population, regardless of occupation, to "move up."

The Soviet government is striving to discourage the creation of any special or privileged "class." The government is, indeed, responsible for highly differentiated salaries and prestige status. But it does not permit the development of class consciousness or in-group membership, apart from, of course, membership in the Party. High army officers are a case in point. Here a whole group of people of the same profession are highly paid. But they do not constitute a class, despite their common interests. First, among the military officers are the so-called political generals, attached not to an "officer's class," but rather to the Party. Secondly, the professional officers are themselves Party members and their allegiance is given to the Party itself rather than to any military "class" of their own. Even a man of considerable pres-

tige like Marshal Zhukov could not count on the support of an "officer class." The Party is a melting pot of all types of professional, religious, and even national groups. The extremely effective Party organization with its ideology does not tolerate the creation of any class or, as the Party leaders call it, "separation from the people." No professional organizations are allowed to exist independently from the Party. All such organizations have been infiltrated by the Party, which exercises decisive control in all of them. The fact that no organization is able to function apart from the Party constitutes one of the most cogent preventive factors against the formation of groups into a "class."

From the beginning of its existence, the Soviet system has been attempting to create a new Soviet man. The final stage of communism seems to require that man's nature be different from that of *homo sapiens* since the beginning of recorded history. But the Soviet leaders have found that it is much easier to industrialize a nation than to change the nature of man. Consequently, the leaders have been forced to accept and to make the best use of human nature as it is.

Man has always shown a willingness to increase his knowledge, and to advance into more important positions if properly rewarded for his efforts. Consequently, the leaders have increased the prestige and financial remuneration associated with those occupations and professions most crucial for the progress of the state. Man's vanity has been satisfied by the large scale introduction of titles, medals, and fancy uniforms. Teamwork and socialist competition with the goal of higher productivity fulfill his desire for sportsmanlike events. The idea of "beating the United States" in per capita production is used as a stimulating challenge. Man, particularly man with an ideal, frequently permitted himself to undergo severe deprivations in the present if the hope for improvement is kept burning brightly. The Soviet leaders have constantly fed that hope. Khrushchev's promise of great improvement in housing, agriculture, and industrial pro-

duction at the end of the present seven-year plan is, no doubt, acting as a powerful incentive. Token improvements in the present with great promises for the future have spurred man into action. Whether or not man has an "instinctive propensity for acquiring property," the history of mankind indicates that property ownership has been a powerful motivator. Realizing this, the Soviet leaders permit the acquisition of personal property.

The Soviet system has not and probably cannot change human nature for the benefit of the future communist society. However, the Soviet system has changed radically the habits and behavior of the population. The

old, lethargic, backward, inefficient, illiterate, agricultural and class conscious Tsarist Russia has been replaced by the efficient, competent, educated, industrial and relatively classless U.S.S.R.

¹ Warren B. Walsh, (Ed.) *Readings in Russian History*. New York: Syracuse University Press, 1948, p. 351.

² Nicholas N. Berdyalev, *Sinn und Schicksal des russischen Kommunismus*, p. 25.

³ October by the old calendar.

⁴ V. I. Lenin, *Selected Work*. Moscow: 1947, Vol. II, p. 210.

⁵ Socialism, used in this context, refers to the Soviet type of socialism, or dictatorial socialism, in contradistinction to a democratic socialism such as that of the British Labor Party or of the Scandinavian countries.

⁶ Compare Anastas Mikoyan as a political man and trade expert.

History of Civilization as a Core Course in Teacher Education

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American colleges and universities offer their students a bewildering variety of "required courses." Each individual institution of higher learning has its own concept of what courses every one of its students should be required to take. At one eastern college a course in Recreation is a prerequisite to graduation. At scores of denominational colleges across the United States students are required to take courses of Bible study. Many of our nation's colleges and universities insist that entering freshmen take Freshman Orientation. Courses in science confront virtually every college student early in his career, while some institutions are more specific and direct all their students to register in biology, earth science, mathematics, or any of the physical or life sciences.

In some of our states the legislators have joined their power to that of school administrators in designing the imperative curriculum for registrants in state institutions of higher learning. Where this occurs one is

apt to find that American history becomes a school-wide experience. A course in political science is often thought to be an essential part of a teacher-education curriculum by state law-makers. And the post-Sputnik era has witnessed an increasing interest in requiring students to take courses in science. Such interest by legislators in curriculum planning can be beneficial but frequently the law-makers assume that problems are solved and deficiencies corrected automatically by adding a course to an already crowded curriculum.

While every college and university has its own list of indispensable courses, there is virtual unanimity in a few areas. Doubtlessly the most widely stressed areas of study and activity are English and Physical Education. While many schools permit some variation with their program through an English proficiency examination, every college program examined in this study had a freshman English requirement. Since Russia's Sputnik

first began circling the earth, the English program of American colleges had been, along with science, one of the most widely criticized areas of our educational system. And although many instructors of freshmen English have some doubts about their ability to accomplish much in the two semesters usually allotted to them, there is no doubt that freshmen English will continue its ubiquitous career. Physical education courses are required by law in many states and prospective teachers can rely on one or two years of physical education no matter where they get their training.

Once the areas of English and physical education have been covered, however, the individual nature of each school's program begins to assert itself. To this observer one of the most heartening facets of American education is the lack of uniformity found in educational programs all over the United States. These individual differences in curricula contribute to the strength and richness of our educational system. But as a social scientist the author would like to make an unabashed appeal for a third universally required area of study, *viz.*, the History of Civilization.

Some kind of History of Civilization course is already one of the most widely-required courses in teacher education. A random sampling of over one hundred colleges and universities, ranging from small liberal arts colleges to state universities, revealed that the vast majority of such institutions include an experience in History of Civilization as a requirement in at least one of their teacher education programs. Many of the programs not having a specific requirement in History of Civilization have such a course included in a list of selected electives. If this area of selected electives were to be included with the specific requirements, History of Civilization could very well be the third or fourth most widely taught course in American education.

But this picture of the universality of courses in History of Civilization can be quite misleading. Within the category "His-

tory of Civilization" there exists a wide variety of different units of study. One West Coast teachers' college has a one-semester three-hour course covering western civilization to the seventeenth century as a selected elective. A Midwestern liberal arts college presents an eight-hour two-semester sequence covering all of world civilization as a graduation requirement. A southern state university has six semester hours of world civilization as an integral part of its teacher-training program.

And so it goes. On the one hand prospective teachers might be exposed to as little as three semester hours of a portion of western civilization. On the other hand, at another institution, the teacher trainees might have to take ten semester hours of world civilization. The variation is striking. One required course will be a brief introduction to western civilization, while another will be a comprehensive examination of all major world civilizations. Of the two alternatives, the latter is obviously to be preferred.

The value of the history of civilization course for the future teacher is quite patent. "History," says famed historian Allan Nevins, "is more than a mere guide to nations. It is first a creator of nations, and after that, their inspirer."¹ One has only to study the career of fascism in Germany and communism in Russia to determine the validity of the assertion that history is a maker of nations! It is possible, then, to describe the value of history in very practical terms. What the historian does, notes one scholar, is to

. . . scan the whole picture, descry the trend of developments, and study the life history of institutions, classes, nations; he thereby becomes able to formulate a good estimate of what can be expected. Although history does not repeat itself, broad parallels can frequently be discerned. . . . When used cautiously, past developments and experiences furnish a valuable guide to present-day conduct.²

It is beyond the scope of this paper, however, to justify the study of history as such. Suffice

it to say here, that historians themselves have no difficulty in verifying the worth of their discipline from the standpoint of utility, aesthetics, or simple antiquarianism.

It would be quite appropriate for our present purposes to acknowledge the particular value that a history of civilization course could have in a teacher education curriculum. In all too many teacher education curricula the History of Civilization course may be the only contact the students has with a liberal arts subject. This is all part of the pattern of too many courses to take and not enough time in four years to take them all. By the time the future teacher takes all the necessary professional courses, his major and minor subjects, and other required experiences, there just isn't time left for such exposure to the liberal arts. This is not to say that a course in History of Civilization is a liberal arts education in itself; at the same time, it is an excellent introduction to (and as good a substitute as can be found for) liberal arts training.

If the course is properly taught and if the curriculum allots enough time to it, History of Civilization units will introduce the student to a wealth of information that should be part of the intellectual armament of every educated person. In what other survey course will one find discussions of Aristotle, Archimedes, and Alexander? Where else might the general student learn the importance of Freud, Hegel, Wagner, and Bacon? From what other source will the education student be able to trace the development of our great institutions of church, state, the military, and commerce? Properly constructed, the History of Civilization course is the best introduction to general education.

Ellis Ford Hartford has already called our attention to the importance of a sound "general education" in any teacher education program.³ Hartford's study showed the great importance administrators place on the value of giving all prospective teachers a strong general education program. This same study revealed the desire of these same administra-

tors to improve the quality of the teaching profession. Both of these goals are aspects of the same problem; a soundly educated teacher will improve the quality of the profession. All teachers need to be more than specialists in a narrow field; they need to be "educated" in the best sense of that over-worked expression. A knowledge of our cultural heritage is a vital part of that education.

The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education has placed its stamp of approval on the goal of making all teachers well-educated persons. The Council statement of 1957 emphasized the necessity of stressing liberal education in any teacher education curriculum.⁴ Teachers trained in liberal arts colleges will get this education; our concern is to see that state college and university students in the field of education get the same opportunity. As noted above, perhaps a majority of teacher-training institutions already recognize this problem and try to meet it at least in part with a History of Civilization course.

Post-Sputnik examinations of American education reveal still another value of the History of Civilization course. For one thing, American fears of Russian advances in science and technology may result in such an increased emphasis on science that other fields, particularly the humanities, may be relegated even further into the background. At the same time, many critics not stampeded into the general demands for stressing science at the expense of all other disciplines have recognized the desirability of a return to the traditional role of the humanities in a general education. The History of Civilization is in a unique position of great value in this respect. As Louis Gottschalk so ably points out, history is both a humanity and a social science.⁵ The humanist and the historian are both interested in the past and present man. Sputnik should make us all realize the necessity of promoting knowledge and understanding of the humanities and the social sciences in an effort to secure the future safety and well-being of humanity.

An added bonus that students in History of Civilization courses receive is a valuable preparation for future study in many different areas. Quite obviously History of Civilization is the logical beginning course for majors and minors in history, as well as for any potential teacher of world history in high school. But that is only the beginning. The course is of almost equal value for students planning to specialize in economics, art, philosophy, literature, political science, psychology, sociology, anthropology, and many other disciplines. The course can provide the backlog of information that can be most helpful in virtually every other discipline—including the physical sciences.

Much of the value to be found in a History of Civilization sequence depends upon the manner and method of the instructor. The freshman or sophomore college course can be a dreary re-hashing of the high school world history course, or it can be an exciting excursion into new areas of thought for both student and professor. Indeed, one of the unexpected bonuses for the instructors in History of Civilization courses is the fact that the immense variety of material inherent in the content of the course permits the enterprising professor to change the shape and plan of attack in virtually unlimited ways. For the thoughtful and adaptable social science instructor, a History of Civilization assignment can be a constant reward as intellectual exercise.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The great impediment to action, said Pericles in his famous Funeral Oration, is want of knowledge. Lest any reader feel a lack of specific knowledge of a program of action for improving History of Civilization courses as part of a teacher-training program, I would like to conclude with a list of suggestions.

1. Course content should cover world civilizations and not be restricted to Western civilization. An all-too-frequent criticism of students in American colleges and universities is their provincialism. We—students and general citizens alike—know too little

of the cultures alien to our own. A History of Civilization course does not live up to its title if the course content is restricted to the development of Western civilization; we need to include units on the Chinese, Indian, Sumerian, Egyptian, Korean and other non-Western civilizations. At the March, 1959, meeting in Chicago of the Association of Higher Education strong support was given to the need for expanding Western Civilization courses into World Civilization courses. The time has long since passed when Americans could be content with a narrow, provincial outlook.

2. A History of Civilization sequence should not be attempted in less than six semester hours. Any effort to reduce course content or units of study to three or four semester hours is doomed to failure from the start. The vast amount of material covered in a good History of Civilization course needs at least six, and preferably eight, semester hours devoted to it.⁶ A too brief, shallow look at world history could be worse than no look at all. We owe it to our students to provide them with a substantial background in this all-important course.

3. Instructors must be cautioned to use the most effective methods possible. Most of us are familiar with the figure in too many of our high schools, the figure of a poorly-prepared, unenthusiastic instructor saddled with the burden of a world history course. We must not make this same mistake in a teacher-training institution. By its very nature the History of Civilization course requires skills and preparation in those teaching it. It is certainly not a course to be pressed lightly on any person who happens to be in a social science department. It is primarily a history course and should be taught by a historian.

4. The maintenance of a high academic standard is important in every field of learning, but this is particularly true of the History of Civilization courses. Partially as an antidote to the common defects mentioned above, and partially because the course is usually an introductory one and thus re-

sponsible for helping to create habits of study and attitudes, the History of Civilization course must have the highest academic standards. General education courses are too often thought of in terms of a home for the academic tramp and students allergic to the demands of academic discipline.⁷

5. History of Civilization instructors have a unique opportunity to show the interrelationships between the many academic fields. A complaint often voiced by students is that college education seems to consist primarily of isolated bodies of knowledge acquired in strictly segregated fields of study. This is one more reason, too, why the instructor of a History of Civilization sequence should be a person of wide reading and one who has an interest in several fields.

¹ Allan Nevins, *The Gateway to History* (New York: D. C. Heath, 1938), 3.

² Carl G. Gustavson, *A Preface to History* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1955), 25.

³ Ellis Ford Hartford, "A Look at Teacher Education," *The Journal of Teacher Education*, (March, 1957), 73-80.

⁴ W. Earl Armstrong, "The Teacher Education Curriculum," *The Journal of Teacher Education*, (September, 1957), 230-43.

⁵ Louis Gottschalk, *Understanding History* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1950), 30-31.

⁶ At Western Illinois University we are fortunate enough to have twelve quarter hours (three courses of four quarter hours each) devoted to our Development of Civilization. This three quarter sequence gives the instructor sufficient time to develop the broad outlines of ancient, medieval, and modern civilizations. Western instructors, of course, do not admit that twelve quarter hours is really enough, but we do admit our good fortune as compared to many other institutions.

⁷ To use a personal illustration again, at Western Illinois University "Dev. of Civ." is not regarded by the students as a "snap course." On the contrary, it is looked upon as a course requiring more work and mental effort than the average college course.

Democratic Social Studies Instruction At the Secondary School Level

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Are We Teaching Democratically?

The elementary schools have for a number of years presented the social studies in a manner compatible with democratic ideology. However, beginning with junior high school, and carrying on into the senior high school, social studies methodology has generally been entirely unsatisfactory as judged by any democratic criteria. Students have realistically been unable to correlate the subject matter to everyday living and have exhibited general distaste for the social studies, with a few exceptional cases.

This indictment is not peculiar only to the secondary school's social studies program; however, it would appear that the initiative for correction of this evil should be taken by those who purport to be teaching democracy. Isn't it strange to teach democracy in a totalitarian manner? Is it not dictatorial to

take a source and teach it page by page (and at the end of the first semester, by simple arithmetic, one must be half way through it) with little variation? Yet this textbook methodology is practiced by the vast majority of our social studies instructors. Students quickly learn to respect the goals of the class as set forth in the examinations and thus memorize as much of the text material as possible. Is this democracy?

I have heard teachers say, "The textbook author is an expert in his field and knows what should be taught better than do I." This may be true; most text authors are very competent. This paper is not an indictment against textbooks; rather it is leveled at our use of them. Have we any assurance that page by page, chapter by chapter coverage of the text, then periodic outpouring of that material on an examination paper, has re-

sulted in any change within the student? Has there been any reflective thinking? If I understand Dewey and his followers, reflection will require a new situation, in effect a block in the thinking process, that will require the student to "mull over" in his mind the correct manner of solving the problem. This does not mean that facts or texts will not be of value in this "mulling over" process. But such reconstruction of the correct solution will result in a higher level of thinking, and a more democratic level of thinking, than mere recitation of indoctrinated facts.

This paper is not dedicated to a laissez faire atmosphere in which the students do as they please, but I am urging that the totalitarianism that now exists be eliminated. Our society, and schools, have long pursued the policy of one portion of laissez-faire and one portion of autocracy divided by two equals democracy. The formula may be mathematically correct but I question its social validity.

Some Suggestions

At this point the reader may presume the writer has a ready-made methodology that will correct the criticism of many present procedures. This presumption is not forthcoming. Any methodology may become dictatorial. Democracy to me represents a process, a procedure, not a product. However, the following suggestions are offered as possibilities toward the achievement of more democratic instruction:

1. Couch the subject matter in such a manner that the answer is not readily apparent. In this way the students will need to "work their way through" to the solution.
2. Accept the possibility of different solutions for different classes.
3. Examinations, likewise, should follow the above two criteria.
4. Suggest to the pupils that they establish criteria by consensus for determining the solution to the problem "as they see it."
5. Emphasize the desirability of their arriving at some solutions in the light of their criteria. The teacher must recognize that their conclusions will not always be the

"best." The teacher can offer guidance to the pupils in arriving at conclusions in the light of available data, and the established criteria. However, there can be no thought control.¹

In the light of the above mentioned suggestions a partial teaching unit has been worked out and is offered as an example of how this procedure might be carried out.

A Partial Unit

The following represents a part of a unit dealing with national defense since World War II in a class on problems of American democracy. The class has been discussing the conclusion of World War II, our disarmament, the post-war tensions, our rearmament, the reorganization of the Defense Department, and presently is considering the Korean "police action."

The class, in discussing the events in the early phases of the conflict, is certain to center some of its discussion on the 38th parallel as the arbitrary dividing line between North and South Korea. The question is likely to be raised concerning the wisdom of attempting to reunite the country by the United Nations' forces pushing north of the 38th. It could be pointed out that an objective of the United Nations was to reunite the country and military action was designed to achieve this end. It will be desirable for the instructor to point out the importance of troop-supply lines and how lengthened supply lines from their base become a limitation, while the opposing military forces have the advantage of diminishing supply lines. Some parallels might be made to previous military engagements, i.e., Napoleon's and Hitler's invasions of Russia. However, this should not become a major discussion topic. A series of questions might then be expected from the class, or the teacher, in an attempt to think through the situation as it was present in Korea.

Where was the North Korean base of supplies? Likewise, the United Nations troops' base of supplies? Was the attack into North Korea responsible for the Chinese Communists entering the fighting? Isn't air superiority important in bombing supply

lines? Didn't we have air superiority? Were we able thus to hit the enemy's base of supplies and supply lines?

The class should formulate answers to such questions as they arise. However, the discussion will necessarily come to the problem of whether we should have bombed the Communists' supplies north of the Yalu River. A rather heated discussion may result over the two schools of thought present as to the desirability of this military tactic. This might be a good time to point out that in most military conflicts there are other national objectives and values to be maintained than military goals entirely. The question might be raised concerning such bombings and achievement of our military objectives. In this case, are any other national objectives sacrificed?

The teacher can then ask who the general in command of the United Nations' forces was. What was General MacArthur's theory on bombing north of the Yalu? Was he a sound military tactician? How did his views differ from President Truman's? Did the President know as much as General MacArthur concerning military strategy? What was the real reason for MacArthur's removal in 1951? Was the removal legal? Was this desirable militarily and otherwise?

The students should begin to realize that the conflict discussed concerning the appropriate military tactics in Korea, and the difference of opinion between President Truman and General MacArthur, are part of a larger question, "Should the president, a civilian, who perhaps knows very little concerning military tactics, be permitted to tell a trained military man what he should do militarily?"

Student discussion possibly will move along the above avenues in natural sequence. However, the instructor may need to use leading questions at times in the process. It is important that some form of the above question (trained military-U. S. civilian leaders) should become a focal point of the preceding discussion. This becomes the problem around which questions, such as the preceding, illustrate student attempts to recon-

cile differences and gain understanding. Wasn't MacArthur a great military strategist? Wasn't he trying to gain the objectives of the United Nations in the best military means available? (The MacArthur-Truman disagreement becomes the point of departure which is expanded to include military-civilian jurisdiction in general). Was it not feasible to rely on the military advice of a man who had spent his life in preparation for dealing with military matters? Isn't this especially true today in light of the importance of split-second operations? Aren't many civilian positions in government political in nature, directly or indirectly? Might the tendency to "play politics" be a detriment to the achievement of military objectives? Just what is 'playing politics' anyway? Was Truman doing so?

To highlight more sharply the question under discussion, the teacher should illustrate the civilian control of the military by constructing on the board a chart giving the organization of the Defense Department with the civilian heads and the commander-in-chief, likewise a civilian. Brief mention can be made of the Congress, a civilian body, and its controls over the military.

With a fuller understanding of the concept of civilian control of the military, questions that tend to uphold this concept can be expected, in contrast to earlier questions that tended to justify military supremacy (if not forthcoming from pupils, the teacher should promote discussion on this opposing view.) Are there not objectives even in war-time other than military? Which are more important? (If this was discussed at length earlier, as presented in the unit, only brief review at this point will be necessary.) How can military elements of the government be "controlled" by the people since they are not elected? If the military is given wide latitude in decision making, might they not abuse this privilege? What about totalitarian countries where the military control the governmental processes? Is not the concept of civilian control of the military to the best interests of the people from a democratic standpoint?

The students have now approached the

core of the problem of whether civilian control of the military is desirable or not. There are considerations pro and con. These have been illustrated by the questions that have been presented. It is evident that the class will become deadlocked unless some means is available to determine which of the alternatives is most desirable for the majority of the class members.

One method² of determining the choice between the two possible approaches (civilian control as contrasted to military control) might be for the teacher to suggest that the class set up a few basic principles they feel are essential for a country in which they wish to live. The following principles might be agreed upon by most members of the class: the right of the American people to determine basic actions of the government, the right of the people to remove from office governmental officials who do not carry out the people's desires, the right to hold elected officials responsible for appointive offices, the right of the Congress to control the "purse strings," the desire for military efficiency, the abhorrence of totalitarian regimes where the people are not exercising the prerogative of decision-making, or the right to criticize these decisions and attempt to bring about amendments, and the responsibility of all, civilian and military, to abide by decisions while in force.

In the light of these criteria which the class feels are important, it might then be suggested that they come to some conclusions, keeping in mind the pros and cons in respect to the relationship within the government of the military and civilian elements, as had been developed in their discussion earlier in the period. The following conclusions might be indicative of student consensus:

1. The President should retain ultimate control over the military, in that he is an elected official representing the entire country.

2. Civilian control of the military is desirable, since in this manner the electorate

may maintain control of general governmental policy.

3. Civilian control of the military allows for objectives other than military to be achieved.

4. In totalitarian countries we have examples of military elements that control the government. This is undesirable in the light of our principles.

5. The military and civilian elements of our country should work out the most effective arrangement possible, and yet maintain the principles of civilian control.

6. The above established principles are perhaps more important than our national security, for "what do we achieve if, in resisting the enemy, we become as the enemy?"

7. However, during national emergencies the people may, if they desire, relinquish additional power to the military. This is inherent within the democratic process.

Conclusion

The above partial unit may leave much to be desired from a unit standpoint. However, the students considered material in which there was no readily apparent answer. To arrive at an answer a reflective process was necessary and different possibilities (hypotheses) proposed. This to me represents democracy in action. Democracy requires citizens who can think their way through to a satisfactory conclusion in light of available data and established standards. The need is greater than ever before to teach reflectively, and thus afford students the opportunity to participate in reaching decisions, and thus learn the ways of democracy.

¹ The reader may wish to consult Ernest E. Bayles, *Democratic Educational Theory*. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1960, for greater elaboration of some of these concepts concerning democratic teaching procedures. Note particularly Chapter 11, "Democracy and Keeping School" and Chapter 12, "Reflective Teaching."

² The following is suggested as only one method for the class to deal with varying hypotheses. Perhaps the techniques will not be followed so formally as outlined here. However, even in pupil discourse where conclusions are arrived at it is suggested that they have values in mind that act as criteria in achieving consensus. This, in essence, is what takes place in this case.

Teachers' Page

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PARENTS, CHILDREN, SCHOOL ATTENDANCE AND WORK

Early this summer I exchanged the usual pleasantries, that one sometimes does, with the proprietor of the neighborhood service station. Part of the conversation went like this:

"How are your boys?"

"Fine, except one isn't too happy. He enlisted for six months."

"Doesn't he like the army?"

"No, it's not that. He's spoiled. Sometimes I think we coddle our children too much."

"What's he complaining about?"

"He doesn't like the food. On Sundays, when he calls up his mother, he tells her he doesn't like the army food. He asks for money, so that he can eat in the PX. Of course, I send it to him, but I don't think it's right."

"Why do you do it?"

"What else can I do?"

"Well, my feelings are that if he were really hungry, he'd get to like even the army food."

"I think the biggest mistake I made was to send him off to college, away from home. He had his own car, lived like a king, and lost all interest in school. He dropped out after a year."

"What are his plans after the army?"

"I am not sure, but I think he's beginning to appreciate the value of education. I hope he'll want to go back to school."

"It's been my experience in dealing with young men, that when they show no interest in school, it is better for them to quit and get a job, or to go into the armed services. Frequently such experience makes them more interested in school." (For some, of course, for various reasons, this change in attitude toward school

comes too late because, at that time, other needs arise the satisfaction of which conflicts with the resuming of their education.)

One of the marks of a progressive society is the absence of child labor. Our country is fortunate that economically we can afford to keep close to 40 million children and young people (up to age 18 and beyond) in school. It takes a rich country to afford this kind of luxury. Economically, we are practically compelled to prolong the education of our young people. Were we suddenly to suspend our compulsory school attendance laws, there just wouldn't be enough jobs for all the young people who would quit or want to quit school. Our desire to extend the education of our young people is consistent with our basic ideology, that the well educated person ultimately will make a better and more intelligent citizen. Moreover, and we hear it so often now, our economy, under the influence of automation and the new scientific discoveries, will soon have less and less need for the unskilled workman and greater and greater need for the educated and skilled workman. The necessity to prolong the education of young people into adulthood is further attested to by the fact there is more to learn—not only relatively speaking, in terms of the amount of today's knowledge compared with that of the past, but because ours is a more complex society, and more formal education is required to fit into it, both vocationally and culturally.

We recall, in this connection, an address made by a speaker at a conference of young people. His point was that, whereas our economy provides more and more leisure time for the adult person, and his problem is one of escaping boredom, our young people (attending school) really have less and less

leisure time because of the greater amount of knowledge they must absorb. This means that for a young person to apply himself diligently to his school work—high school and college—he must have some kind of inner drive. The education must have meaning and purpose to him. The goal he sets up for himself or others set up for him must be worth the energy he has put into going to school and studying.

Parents often ask: "How do you create this inner drive—this dedication to school-work?" Some young people just have it and others do not. It is a product of many complex factors associated with the entire growing up period, starting from infancy. Genetic factors also play a part, such as the basic intelligence potential, the presence or absence of tendencies toward certain talents. Most important, probably, are the home environment influences.

A parent once asked, "How can I get my daughter to read more—of good books?"

Neither the father nor the mother of this child did much reading except the daily newspaper and some of the mass media magazines. Cultural values and tastes—such as a love for reading or for music—generally develop as a result of parental interest in them. The best way to get a child interested in reading books is for parents to have them around in the home—not just for display, but to talk about. Some children of course do develop cultural tastes different from those of their parents, due to the influences of school, personal friends and other experiences they have. Frequently, parents have high educational hopes and goals for their children but they are unable or unwilling to modify their own interests and leisure time activities, which would set an example for the child.

A high school with which I was once associated planned an evening meeting for parents (in cooperation with the Home and School association) on "Entrance into College." The audience attendance was quite large. More than half of the parents of the children in the school hoped or wanted their

children to go to college. The same high school planned a program on "Reading in the Home" and only a handful of parents turned out.

Should young people who have no inner drive to continue with high school or college be forced to do so? The answer is not the same for all young people. Except for children of superior intelligence, and even for them, a good high school education, and a worthwhile college education, require perseverance, hard work, and considerable self-denial. There are many boys and girls without a strong love or desire for school, who under pressure of parents and school attendance laws, go to school and do a fairly good job of learning. Where this kind of pressure has no such effect—or even produces an opposite effect, a hatred for school—the value of forced attendance is questionable.

What to do with these young people of compulsory school age (14-18) is one of our very serious problems. The following newspaper editorial¹ discusses one possible answer:

"The Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare echoed the opinions of many parents and older citizens when he told a Congressional committee that many child labor laws 'do too much coddling of children.' So do many parents, for that matter, and may later wonder why their teen-agers are lazy, shiftless and sometimes delinquent.

"Work is Secretary Ribicoff's antidote to the ailments of idleness. 'Useful, gainful employment will lift up a youngster's sense of self-respect and give him a sense of responsibility.' And Mr. Ribicoff speaks from his own experience, for he was a newspaper boy at eight and worked at four other jobs before he passed the age of 16.

"Child-labor laws were created to stop the exploitation of children and keep them out of hazardous employments. But these protective measures may have gone too far and the Secretary suggests cautiously that the laws might be studied and modified, with the particular purpose of keeping growing youngsters out of mischief and teaching them good

working habits. The nations past and present newspaper boys and farm boys, on the whole, offer an example of what useful work in childhood can do to educate good citizens."

Government-supported plans to provide work experience to young people for whom existing school programs are unsuited have been advocated by many close to the problem. Perhaps the future may see the development of such programs. The following news release² reports on some beginning in this direction:

"Washington, July 12 — (UPI) — A House Education subcommittee yesterday approved President Kennedy's three-year, \$275 million 'youth opportunities program,' including a revival of the old Civilian Conservation Corps of the 1930's. The program, proposed by Mr. Kennedy on a limited 'pilot' level, would provide:

"1. On-the-job training for 25,000 youths aged 16-21 each year. The Government would encourage private groups and industries to set up training programs and pay up to \$20 a week to each trainee.

"2. Public service training and employment for 25,000 boys and girls in the 16-21 age group each year. Labeled as a "home town Peace Corp" by some witnesses, the program would place young persons in state and local service agencies to carry out projects that regular employees are not doing.

"Federal pay would not exceed \$20 a week.

"3. Youth Conservation Corps employment for 6,000 boys aged 17-21 yearly.

"Work Outdoors.

"Patterned on the old CCC, the new corps would put youngsters to work in federal and state parks, forests and other outdoor areas. Pay would be \$70 a month, with up to \$20 a month extra for youths assigned to leadership and other special jobs. Room and board, transportation equipment would be supplied by the Government.

"The bill approved by the sub-committee would authorize \$75 million for the first year and \$100 million for each of the last two years of the program.

"The House Education and Labor Committee is scheduled to take up the measure tomorrow."

Unfortunately the provisions are only a drop in the bucket in terms of the need for such work experience programs. Nor will these programs necessarily solve the whole problem. There are many young people who probably should be encouraged to continue their education but have no desire to do so because of the wrong kind of conditioning they received both at home and during the early years of schooling.

Earlier, we mentioned a parent's and an editorial's reference to "too much coddling." The trouble is not that there is coddling, but that it is usually done at the wrong time, particularly if the term "coddle" were interpreted as meaning "to treat tenderly" rather than "to pamper." A young child requires tender treatment. He needs to be allowed to explore things his own way. He should be given help when he needs and wants it and be left alone when he doesn't want help (unless it's for his own immediate safety and well-being). Tenderness need never be stopped but as the child gets older, it must be accompanied with training in the development of a sense of responsibility and consideration for the feelings of others. The assumption of household responsibilities, for example, should be introduced when the child is mature enough to cope with these responsibilities. Too many parents do coddle (pamper) their children when they want to spare them the drudgery of certain household and other chores, or when they fail to equate privileges that the child enjoys along with corresponding responsibilities. Above all, parents must teach more by example than by preaching.

Another difficulty is that our society tends to cling to over-idealized educational theories, which in practice amounts to placing every child in the same educational mold whether he fits into it or not.

That every child needs an education is not questioned. But that every child needs a high school diploma is subject to question. Since primitive times children have been educated

or trained for adult living. Put together all the aims and objectives of education enunciated from time to time, and they all can be combined into one basic goal: the purpose of education is to give young people the skills and the knowledge that will best fit them into a respected niche in society. For some young people this may include a knowledge of English grammar or Shakespeare but not necessarily for others. It is true that we have modified our high school offerings to fit the so-called varied needs of young people by providing commercial, vocational, and home economics as well as academic diplomas. But, in the main, we still subject every student in high school to academic courses (history, English literature, mathematics and science) modified or diluted though they be. We do this on the assumption that by taking these courses the boys and girls will become more

proficient citizens—capable of voting intelligently, enjoying desirable leisure time activities, and generally being better able to maintain good human relations. The sad truth is that even college-educated people do not necessarily become intelligent voters or acquire the other values mentioned above, merely because of their attendance in college. It is not suggested that boys and girls should be discouraged from continuing with their education. To the contrary, it should be encouraged to the extent of increasing scholarship opportunities—but primarily for young people who desire and can profit from it. For others, still within the compulsory school age, work experience programs would produce more desirable results.

¹ *The Evening Bulletin*, Philadelphia, Pa., July 12, 1961.

² *Ibid.*

Instructional Materials

IRWIN A. KAUSER

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NEW MATERIALS

The Middle East. "A Brief Annotated Bibliography on the Middle East for Secondary School Teachers," compiled by Alice Jones, Elsie Sebert, Viva Tansey, and Edith West is available from the American Association for Middle East Studies, 730 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y. 8 pages, 25¢. *Educational Aids Catalog.* The free educational materials issued by the National Association of Manufacturers are listed in an annual catalog, "Educational Aids for Schools and Colleges." The 1960-61 edition also describes available films and publications of other NAM departments which have classroom value.

Free Economic Charts. The National Industrial Conference Board, 460 Park Avenue, New York, N. Y., has available "Road Maps of Industry" charts—printed in several colors, measuring 8½ x 11 inches and punched for filing. These charts deal with

significant current developments in the broad fields of economics.

USIA Report. Many interesting facets to the U.S.-Soviet Union relationship are revealed in the "14th Review of Operations" booklet of the U.S. Information Agency. For a free copy of the report, write to the Office of Public Information Agency, Washington, D. C.

FILMS

TVA and the Nation. 30 min. Free loan. TVA Information Office, Knoxville, Tenn. Describes the benefits of TVA's resource development program and points up that the strengthening of a region adds to national strength.

The Explorations of Prince Henry. 13 min. Color. Sale. Textfilm Dept., McGraw-Hill Book Co., 330 W. 42nd St., New York 36, N. Y. It presents a broad overview of the life of Prince Henry of Portugal, one of the great figures of the Age of Exploration.

It shows how, inspired by Henry's example, his captains achieved the goal and made tiny Portugal a leading force in the Age of Exploration.

Congress and the President. 30 min. Black and white. NET Film Service, Audio-Visual Center, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind. In a discussion of the constitutional division of the "separation of powers" (legislative, executive, and judicial), this film points out the dependence of Congress on leadership and information from the executive branch.

Fort Ticonderoga. 15 min. Color. Sale. Black and white. Textfilm Dept., McGraw-Hill Book Publishing Co., 330 W. 42nd St., New York, N. Y. This film explains the importance of the events that took place around Lake Champlain area in the 18th Century. It is a stirring tribute to Fort Ticonderoga, an important part of our American heritage.

Settling The Great Plains. 12 min. Color. Black and white. Sale. Textfilm Dept., McGraw-Hill Book Publishing Co. Shows the successive adaptations by the Indians, cattlemen and homesteaders to the difficult life on the Great Plains.

The President's Cabinet. 11 min. Color. Black and white. Sale/rental. Coronet Films, 65 E. South Water St., Chicago 1, Ill. A family learns the role of the cabinet's individual departments in everyday life. Their interest leads to a review of the history of the President's cabinet and its relationship to the other branches of government.

Life and Times of the Iron Horse. 11 min. Color. Black and white. Sale. Textfilm Dept., McGraw-Hill Book Publishing Co. Shows the need for and development of the steam locomotive and steel rails, culminating in the first transcontinental railroad.

The President. 17 min. Black and white. Sale/rental. Encyclopedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill. Dramatizes the major historical events which have led to the growth and power, as well as the influence of the Presidency.

Era of Water Commerce. 11 min. Color. Black and white. Sale. McGraw-Hill Book Publishing Co. Provides visual evidence of the importance of water transportation in the development of commerce in the U. S. It shows how the progress of water commerce was influenced by the demands placed upon it by the growing economy.

Your Government—The Presidency. 10 min. Black and white. Sale. McGraw-Hill Book Publishing Co. Traces the position of the Presidency from its constitutional beginnings, through the development of implied powers to its present strong position.

FILMSTRIPS

Our President and The President's Cabinet. Color. 44 fr. Sale. McGraw-Hill Book Publishing Co. These filmstrips belong to the Civics Series (Set No. 1) which is designed to stimulate students' interest in the organization and functions of government. The other titles are:

How Our Laws Are Made

The Young Citizen Looks At Politics

Why We Pay Taxes

The President: Office and Powers. 38 fr. Black and white. Sale. McGraw-Hill Book Publishing Co. Provides basic information on the subject. Includes scenes photographed in the White House.

The New Administration in Washington. 53 fr. Black and white. Sale. Office of Educational Activities, *The N. Y. Times*, 229 W. 43 St., New York 36, N. Y. This is a timely filmstrip dealing with the numerous and complex problems that will be faced by the new President.

Russia and the Satellite Empire. 58 fr. Black and white. Sale. *The N. Y. Times*. Traces the Soviet acquisitions of the satellites, their ill-fated revolts and their support of Moscow against the aggressiveness of Communist Chinese policies. It takes up their continuing restiveness, their economic discontent and their unremitting longing for freedom from Moscow-dominated puppet regimes. Accompanying the filmstrip is a discussion manual that reproduces each frame and adds below it supplementary in-

formation for each frame. It contains also discussion questions, suggested activities, and suggested readings.

RECORDINGS

Songs of the Civil War. 2 — 12 inch LP. (FH 5717). Sale. Record, Book & Film Sales, Inc., 121 W. 47 St., New York 36, N. Y. This is the most complete recording of

Civil War songs ever issued, based on the book, *Songs of the Civil War*, published by Columbia Univ. Press. More than 30 different Yank and Rebel tunes. Songs included are: "Battle Cry of Freedom," "Bonnie Blue Flag," "Just Before the Battle Mother," "Kingdom Coming," "Tenting Tonight," "Cumberland Crew," etc. Included are also notes and texts.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

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The Siege of New Orleans. By Charles B. Brooks. Seattle, Washington: University of Washington Press, 1961. Pp. 334. \$6.50.

The Baratarians and the Battle of New Orleans. By Jane Lucas de Grummond. Baton Rouge, Louisiana: Louisiana State University Press, 1961. Pp. 180. \$4.50.

The War of 1812 was, to Americans, a succession of disappointments. In spite of sensational, but isolated and increasingly less frequent, naval victories, American forces were subjected to defeat after humiliating defeat. Generals were incompetent, half-hearted, perhaps downright cowardly. Troops were poorly trained, inadequately equipped, and often reluctant.

Then at the end of the war, actually after the treaty of peace had been signed, came a sensational victory. The very flower of the British army, seasoned veterans who had fought Napoleon's best, attacked a motley crew of militia, backwoodsmen, "pirates," and free Negroes—the "Dirty Shirts" the British called them. The British outnumbered the forces of Andrew Jackson at least two to one. They were commanded by Britain's second most famous general—Sir Edward Pakenham. They had adequate supplies and excellent naval support. Yet they were shambled by the accurate fire of the almost unscathed Americans. As soon as they could do so, the British withdrew from American soil.

This colorful and dramatic campaign has not been discussed by a competent historian, in a thorough fashion, for more than a century. Now, within weeks of each other, appear two excellent accounts.

De Grummond devotes her first four chapters, almost exclusively, to those smugglers, privateersmen, outlaws—call them what you will—who were known as the Baratarians. To their troops and supplies (especially their cannon and their powder) more than to any other single source, Jackson owed his victory. In these four chapters is the best account of the background and activity of the Baratarians—Jean and Pierre Lafitte, Dominique You, Beluche, Gambie and their fellows—that this writer has ever seen.

Dr. Brooks, on the other hand, begins his account with segments of the British army in Europe the preceding Spring. In his second paragraph we are introduced to two young officers of the 85th British Regiment. Aided by the memoirs of one of them (the other, Lieutenant Gray, was killed in the first scrimmage with the Americans), the author traces the movements of the British troops and their preparations for the campaign on which the British government was to bank so much.

In his longer and thus more detailed account, Brooks devotes much attention to the organization of both armies. He is also able to discuss in more detail various pre-

liminary decisions and engagements. For example, soon after the British began to disembark, their naval forces destroyed the American gun boats under the command of Lieutenant Jones. Miss de Grummond devotes three brief paragraphs to this action; Dr. Brooks uses four pages to tell the same story.

Dr. de Grummond's book has certain superiorities. It is more compact, better and more clearly organized, and is based on much more adequate research in manuscript sources. It also has a more useful index. Dr. Brooks has done careful research in printed sources, has more detail—especially on the British army—and his book has much better maps.

These two volumes are important, interesting and well-written. Taken together, they provide wonderful coverage of this important and exciting campaign. Alert social studies teachers could find many uses for these books. For example, a superior student might be referred to them and told to ascertain when and how Jackson was persuaded to accept the help of the Baratarians (Brooks, p. 87; de Grummond, p. 81). Such a student, finding different accounts in the two books, might be guided to the discovery that de Grummond (p. 174, 1st paragraph) had used more adequate sources than Brooks (p. 287, fn. 13).

There are many other comparisons and exercises that a teacher might develop. But first, of course, the teacher must read these excellent books.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

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International Education: A Documentary History. By Editor David G. Scanlon. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1960. Pp. 196. \$1.95.

This is Classic No. 5 in an inexpensive paperback series of collected readings on educational topics, being completed under the general editorship of Lawrence Cremin. This volume, as others in the series (Horace Mann

on Education, John Dewey on education, the Supreme Court and education, etc.) is valuable as it draws together a number of diverse but important statements, often difficult to procure, on the topic of international education. The documents selected include some of the highlights in the movement toward international education which is traced in more detail by Professor Scanlon in a thirty-page introductory overview.

The sixteen readings that follow are grouped under section themes. We find early proposals, as Comenius' Seventeenth Century statement on behalf of an international college, Jullien's 1826 paper urging an international bureau of education, and later sources such as the UNESCO Charter and the portions of Cecil Rhodes' last will and testament establishing the scholarships that helped initiate the growing movement to provide study abroad for worthy young scholars. A number of readings related to the newer aspects of comparative and cross-cultural education are included. Among these is an outline by Metraux of the historical development of this phenomenon, a description of mass education in China in the 1920's, the text of the recent Soviet-American agreement for cultural interchange, and a discussion of the essential elements of present day fundamental education in underdeveloped countries.

Any expert in comparative or international education might well question the rationale for the inclusion of some of the pieces and decry the omission of one or another key account or document, such as the missing Fulbright Act or the legislative provisions for the important new East-West Center for International Education recently established at the University of Hawaii. Some of the missing sources are, however, footnoted but, while we have come not to expect indexes in volumes of this nature, certainly a selected bibliography would enhance the usefulness of this little book.

RICHARD E. GROSS
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A Social History of the American Family.

By Arthur W. Calhoun. New York: Barnes and Noble, Inc., c. 1919, 1946, reprinted 1960. Three volumes: Vol. I, Colonial Period, pp. 400; Vol. II, From Independence through the Civil War, pp. 443; Vol. III, From 1865 to 1919, pp. 411. \$1.75 each. Paperback.

This classic study of the American family has been, since it first appeared (in 1917-1919), one of the best presentations of the historical roots of our family institution, and it is good to have it available for wider use in this paperback reprint.

Although the value of the historical approach to the study of any social institution ought to be apparent, it is a phase of the modern "education for marriage" trend all too easily overlooked, or worse still, deliberately discarded. (Calhoun is rarely referred to in "marriage" texts.) This work, however, is a standard work on family folkways and mores. Admittedly, it typifies the approach that dominated the first period of serious study of the family. When family scholars began to turn their attention more to the problems of the contemporary family, the social history of the family was increasingly deprecated as old-fashioned and non-functional. Understanding of the cultural heritage of the family and, indeed, of the problems of contemporary marriage thus declined. A wide reading of Calhoun could regain a considerable amount of lost ground.

The work itself is good social history. Volume I, starting with old-world origins, covers the colonial period—courtship and marriage, position of women, sex mores, home life, and marriage regulations, in the New England, the Middle, and the Southern colonies. Volume II carries the story through the Civil War, dealing with the emancipation of women and children, the family patterns of the frontier, the impact of the rising urbanism and industrialism, and the complications that slavery and race brought to the South. Volume III considers the passing of patriarchalism, the enlargement of the rights and roles of women and children, the attitude of the churches, and numerous problems im-

pinging on the social conscience early in this century, such as "race suicide" (how strange the term sounds these days!), eugenics, divorce, illegitimacy, prostitution, common law marriage, etc.

Calhoun wrote without benefit of the recent developments in anthropology, psychiatry, and statistical research. Comprehensive studies of the family today naturally include the contributions of these disciplines as well as those of social history. Neither does Calhoun set forth any framework of sociological theory for family study. But the assumptions and the data of Calhoun's classic are still necessary for any thorough understanding of marriage and the family as contemporary social institutions. The general reader, college and secondary students of the family, and anyone interested in the broader field of American social history can make use of it.

WAYNE C. NEELY

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Men of Space: Profiles of the Leaders in Space Research, Development, and Explorations. By Shirley Thomas. Philadelphia: Chilton Co., 1961. Pp. xx, 235. \$3.95.

Shirley Thomas, as Hollywood interviewer-commentator for NBC, CBS, and Voice of America, successively, has covered a long list of space symposia, missile meetings, and jet age conferences. While she listened to discussions of scientific wonders, she compiled a master list of about 450 space leaders, then formed the Advisory Committee to select from this list ten men to be immortalized in this volume: Krafft A. Ehricke (a German immigrant, "whose knowledge and keen imagination have laid steppingstones toward the exploration of the universe"); Robert H. Goddard ("Father of modern rocketry, the first to prove his theories with actual tests"); Bernard A. Schriever ("Forceful leader who gave America its first intercontinental ballistic missile in record time"); John Paul Stapp ("Dedicated and courageous doctor famed for his rocket-sled test rides"); Konstantin Edouardovich Tsiolkovsky ("Early

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Documentary photographs increase the value of this great volume, which is not only absorbing but serves as required reading for all science teachers who stress that the great-

est gift to man may remain in the category of inspiration.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

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Hegel Highlights: An Annotated Selection.

Edited by Wanda Orynski. New York: Philosophical Library, 1960. Pp. 361. \$4.75.

This volume is designed to digest a philosophical system that is strictly scientific, that meets logical demands, yet embodies all phases of experience, being, and thought. Wanda Orynski sees the philosophy of Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel in this light and asserts that it was he "who first made it possible for man to see all that there is in himself and in his world and to formulate such knowledge scientifically." Perhaps "lips curl in vilipending jeers and with hauteur and a smirk his system is dispensed with by some who probably never studied or, if they did

so, miserably failed to comprehend it," but Orynski treads carefully between the neophytes and lion-hearted veterans in presenting "the light that shines through the insight of this genius in speculative thinking" as a labor of love. None other, she feels, possesses a surer approach to our era. "The Master" saw his way clearly, and his devoted follower seeks perspective by concentrating on three portions of his "stupendous treatise."

The Phenomenology of Mind deals with continuous experience and points toward Self-Comprehension of Spirit. *The Science of Logic* is presented as a rigid Genesis of Pure Thought. *The Philosophy of History* views the logic of ontology as it is being actualized in the historic process. Consummation is finally realized in the State, but Hegel seems not so much an official Prussian State Philosopher as an orchestral conductor:

He is quoted as saying that the state is greater than the individual and therefore has the inherent right to use the individual for its own ends. What he did say may be construed to mean this, if subtle perception gives way and does not realize the difference between such an interpretation and his implied meaning. But it would be like saying that the orchestra may usurp the individuality of the violin, instead of that the violin finds the highest fulfillment of expression of itself in the orchestra. The difference is a subtle one, but it is also very real.

Nor is Hegel responsible for his pupil Karl Marx who "assuredly understood him yet undertook to twist and reapply his theory to the very opposite of what he tried to prove, that not God but matter is the primary substance of the world." This reviewer, an historian, has dutifully labored on his Hegel, particularly *The Philosophy of History*, but is not nearly so sure of understanding him. The essential aim of the whole history of the world may be to attain to the consciousness of freedom, but it is still questionable whether or not the categories of reason dictate that it *must* be so. Man is a thinking being and therefore *does* have freedom, but this century has shown that this alone does

not necessarily differentiate him from the brute. Hegel sees Man as inherently infinite, possessed of universal thought, a species immortal because it preserves identity with itself. *FREE DOM* as the self-contained existence (*Bei-sich-selbst-sein*) of the Spirit (*Geist*) strikes a responsive cord even if "Freedom is, primarily, an undeveloped idea." Less sonorous are many of the illustrations of how the successive phases of the Idea of Spirit in the external manifestation of Human Will are manifested as distinct political principles. The history of the world, nevertheless, "is nothing but the development of the Idea of Freedom." but —

Objective Freedom—the laws of *real* Freedom—demand the subjugation of the mere contingent Will—for this is in its nature formal. If the Objective is in itself Rational, human insight and conviction must correspond with the Reason which it embodies, and then we have the other essential element—subjective Freedom—also realized.

It is more difficult in German, but God, at least, is justified in History, and only this insight can reconcile Spirit with the History of the World (*Weltgeschichte*). What is happening, what has happened, and what will happen, Orynski has Hegel conclude, is "not only not 'without God,' but is essentially His work."

ELLIS A. JOHNSON
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HELPFUL CLASSROOM AIDS ARTICLES

"The Tragedy of the Conant Report." By James D. Koerner. *Phi Delta Kappa*, XLII, December, 1960.

PAMPHLETS

Prepared under the auspices of the Citizenship Clearing House. New York University Press, 1960. Washington Square South, New York 3, New York.

New York Politics. By Ralph A. Straetz and Frank J. Munger. Price \$1.25.

Washington Politics. By Daniel M. Ogden, Jr. and Hugh A. Bone. Price \$1.25.

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Illinois Politics. By Austin Ranney. Price \$1.25.

African Development and Education in Southern Rhodesia. By Franklin Parker. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Press, 1960. Pp. viii, 165. \$1.75. Paperback. A very fine study of this problem. Well presented and enjoyable to read.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

British Labor and Public Ownership. By Herbert E. Weiner. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1961. Pp. v, 111. \$3.25.

The Dynamics of Communism. By R. V. Burks. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1961. Pp. ix, 244. \$5.00.

Pakistan and the United Nations. National Studies on International Organization. By E. Sarwar Hasau. New York: Manhattan Publishing Company, 1961. Pp. x, 328. \$3.00.

Your Life as a Citizen. By Harriet Fuller Smith, George G. Bruntz, Ernest W. Tiege and Faye Adams. New York: Ginn and Company, 1961. Pp. vi, 632. \$5.20. Revised Edition.

Powers of the President During Crisis. By J. Malcolm Smith and Cornelius P. Cotter. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1961. Pp. xi, 184. \$5.00.

The Record of Mankind. By A. Wesley Roehm, Morris R. Burke, Hutton Webster and Edgar B. Wesley. Boston, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1961. Pp. xxiv, 624. \$5.76.

Geography of the New World. By John R. Borchert and Jane McGuigan. New York: Rand McNally and Company, 1961. Pp. vii, 448. \$5.00.

The Wide World. A Geography. By Preston E. James and Nelda Davis. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1961. Pp. xxiii, 536. \$5.60.

Government in Our Republic. By Stuart Gerry Brown and Charles L. Peltier. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1961. Pp. xxvii, 710. \$5.60.

Rebecca Latimer Felton. Nine Stormy Decades. By John E. Talmadge. Athens,

Georgia: University of Georgia Press, 1961. Pp. xvi, 187. \$4.50.

Profile of Nigeria. By Leonard S. Kenworthy. Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Company, 1961. Pp. 96. \$2.50.

A Polish Factory. A Case Study of Workers' Participation in Decision Making. By Jiri Kolaja. Lexington, Kentucky: University of Kentucky Press, 1961. Pp. vii, 157. \$5.00.

The Statesman's Year-Book, 1960-1961. Edited by S. H. Steinberg. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1961. Pp. 1075. \$9.50.

Modern Political Thought, The Great Issues. By William Ebenstein. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961. Pp. xv, 875. \$8.00. Second Edition.

The Psychology of Crime. By David Abrahamsen. New York: Columbia University Press, 1961. Pp. xiv, 358. \$6.00.

Psychology and Education. By Hirch Lazar Silverman. New York: Philosophical Library, 1961. Pp. x, 169. \$3.75.

The British Common People. By G. D. H. Cole and Raymond Postgate. New York: Barnes and Noble, 1961. Pp. xxxii, 741. \$1.95. Paper Bound.

History of Britain. By E. H. Carter and R. A. F. Mears. New York: Oxford University Press, 1961. Pp. xliii, 1115. \$4.40. Third Edition.

Your Inalienable Rights. By Philip B. Yeager and John B. Stark. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1960. Pp. xi, 274. \$5.00.

Social Science and Libraries. Edited by S. R. Ranganathan and Girja Kumar. New York: Asia Publishing House, 1960. Pp. 183. \$4.00.

The Negro in France. By Shelby T. McCloy, Lexington, Kentucky: University of Kentucky Press, 1961. Pp. 278. \$7.00.

A Social Contour of an Industrial City. Social Survey of Kanpur. By D. N. Majumdar. New York: Asia Publishing House, 1960. Pp. viii, 242. \$10.95.

The Facts of American Life. Edited by M. B. Schnapper. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1960. Pp. 420. \$6.00.

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